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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

G. P. QUACKENBOS L.L.D.

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AN

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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JOHN S. PRELL
Civil & Mechanical Engineer.
SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

NEW YORK:
D. APPLETON AND COMPANY,
1, 3, AND 5 BOND STREET.
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PREFACE.

Several years ago, the author was engaged by the publishers of Weld's English Grammar to revise that work, with instructions to make such changes in it as would in his opinion perfect the system therein presented. This task he performed to the best of his ability, making as good a book as he knew how to produce on Weld's system. This system, however, was not his own; in many important points it did not represent his views; nor was it his province, being simply its editor, to introduce his own peculiar views into the revised book. They have been retained for the present work, contemplated long before the revision was undertaken, and here presented as a new and distinct System of Grammar.

In offering the present Grammar to the public, the author begs leave to refer to the work itself as the best exponent of those peculiarities by which it is to be approved or condemned. A few words, however, may not be improper here as to its plan and general features.

Grammar has hitherto been a dry and hard subject to teach. It is here sought to make it easy and interesting by combining practice with theory, example with precept, on a more liberal scale than has heretofore generally been done. The matter is divided into short lessons, followed in every case by an Exercise, which applies in every variety of way the principles just laid

down, and frequently embodies a practical review of what has been previously learned.

Definitions are approached by means of preliminary illustrations, which make their abstract language intelligible while it is in process of learning.

Words are classified as parts of speech solely and exclusively according to their *use* in the sentence. This course does away with all *arbitrary* distinctions, and enables the pupil to classify words readily and correctly for himself.

The Rules of Syntax are introduced as they are needed, in connection with etymological parsing. Thus, among other advantages, is avoided the unreasonableness (inevitable, when these rules are kept back) of requiring a pupil to give the case of nouns under circumstances in which he can have no possible clue to it.

A simple method of analyzing sentences is presented, not encumbered with technical terms or requiring labor on the teacher's part to make it available.

There is no avoiding of difficulties. A lesson is expressly devoted to the explanation of perplexing constructions.

Many minor points may also be noticed; such as doing away with the neuter gender, a factitious distinction engrafted on English Grammar from the classical languages; the view taken of comparison; the comprehensive treatment of auxiliaries, and directions for their proper use; the introduction of *need*, as an auxiliary of the present potential; the unusually full Exercises on False Syntax; and the general arrangement and adaptation of the whole.

It is believed that this Grammar will be found to work well in the class-room, and, whether used in connection with the author's books on Composition or independently of them, to impart a thorough knowledge of our language.

NEW YORK, July 22, 1862.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

LESSON I.

LETTERS, SYLLABLES, WORDS, SENTENCES.

1. What Grammar is.—Men have minds; with these they think. Men have speech; this enables them to express their thoughts.

Thoughts are expressed with words. Grammar teaches us how to put words together, to express thoughts correctly.

Thoughts may be either spoken or written. Grammar, therefore, teaches us how to speak and write correctly.

Different languages, such as English, French, Latin, have different peculiarities. Hence every language has its own grammar. English Grammar teaches us how to speak and write the English language correctly.

2. Words.—A **Word** is the sign of an idea.

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1. With what do men think? How are they enabled to express their thoughts? With what are thoughts expressed? What teaches us how to put words together, to express thoughts correctly? How may thoughts be made known? What, then, does Grammar teach us? What does English Grammar teach us? What is a Word? Give an example. How are words combined? Give an

Thus, the word *rose* is a sign that stands for the queen of flowers. The word *village* is a sign that stands for a small collection of houses.

To express thoughts, words, which are the signs of distinct ideas, are combined in Sentences. When I say, "The rose is sweet," I express one thought, with four words combined in one sentence.

3. Letters.—When spoken, a word is a sound or combination of sounds. When written, a word is a character or combination of characters, standing for its sound or sounds. The word *rose*, when written, consists of four characters, *r o s e*, which stand for the sound heard when the word is uttered. These characters are called Letters.

A **Letter** is a character that stands for a sound of the human voice used in speaking; as, *a*, *z*.

The letters of a language constitute its Alphabet. The English alphabet contains twenty-six letters; *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, *f*, *g*, *h*, *i*, *j*, *k*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *o*, *p*, *q*, *r*, *s*, *t*, *u*, *v*, *w*, *x*, *y*, *z*.

The art of combining letters correctly, to form words, is called Spelling.

4. Syllables.—Some words are uttered with but one impulse of the voice; as, *go*, *light*. Others require several impulses; as, *go-ing*, *en-light-en*. This gives rise to a division of words into Syllables.

A **Syllable** is a letter or combination of letters uttered with one impulse of the voice; as, *a*, *an*, *ant*, *an-ti-dote*.

5. Syllabic Division of Words.—According to the

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example. 3. What is a word, when spoken? What, when written? Give an example. What is a Letter? What is meant by the Alphabet of a language? How many letters does the English alphabet contain? Repeat them. What is Spelling? 4. Show the difference of words, as regards their utterance. What is a Syllable? 5. How are words divided, as regards their number of syllables? What

number of their syllables, words are divided into four classes; Monosyllables, Dissyllables, Trisyllables, and Polysyllables.

A **Monosyllable** is a word of one syllable; a **Dissyllable** is a word of two syllables; a **Trisyllable**, of three; a **Polysyllable**, of more than three. *He* is a monosyllable; *he-ro*, a dissyllable; *he-ro-ic*, a trisyllable; *he-ro-i-cal*, *he-ro-i-cal-ly*, are polysyllables.

6. SUMMING UP.—The elements of language are Letters, which stand for simple sounds of the human voice used in speaking. Letters are combined in Syllables, which represent sounds uttered by one impulse of the voice. Syllables are combined in Words, which are the signs of ideas. Words are combined in Sentences, which express thoughts.

EXERCISE.

Pronounce each of the following words, and tell whether it is a monosyllable, dissyllable, trisyllable, or polysyllable:—Length; courageous; wintry; irresistible; coined; uncoined; beautiful; mechanism; unmerciful; asthma; every; trout; meteorology; flower; chivalry; wicked; walked; stereoscope.

Mention four dissyllables; four polysyllables; four monosyllables; four trisyllables.

LESSON II.

CLASSIFICATION OF LETTERS.

7. POWERS OF THE LETTERS.—The **Power** of a letter is its sound in a given word.

The *power* of a letter must be distinguished from its *name*. In the

is a Monosyllable? A Dissyllable? A Trisyllable? A Polysyllable? 6. Sum up the matter of this Lesson.

7. What is the Power of a letter? From what must the power of a letter be

word *me*, the power of *e* is the same as its name; in *met*, the power of *e* is different from its name. Give the name and the power of each letter in the word *farms*.

Some letters stand for more than one sound; as, *a* in *ale*, *awl*, *are*, *am*.

Some sounds have more than one letter to stand for them. Thus, in *her*, *sir*, *fur*, the same sound is represented by *e*, *i*, and *u*.

Our twenty-six letters represent in all about forty distinct sounds.

8. VOWELS AND CONSONANTS.—Of the twenty-six letters, some are uttered freely, without interruption to the breath; as, *a*, *e*. In uttering others, the breath is more or less interrupted by the tongue or lips; as, *d*, *f*. Hence the letters are divided into two classes, Vowels and Consonants.

A **Vowel** is a letter that can be uttered freely, without interruption from the tongue or lips.

A **Consonant** is a letter that can not be uttered freely, but is more or less interrupted by the tongue or lips.

9. There are five vowels; *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*.

There are nineteen consonants; *b*, *c*, *d*, *f*, *g*, *h*, *j*, *k*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *p*, *q*, *r*, *s*, *t*, *v*, *x*, *z*.

Two of the letters, *w* and *y*, are consonants in some cases, and in others vowels. When they precede a vowel sounded in the same syllable, they are consonants; as in *wet*, *whet*, *swing*, *re-ward*, *yet*, *un-yield-ing*. In all other positions, they are vowels; as in *view*, *awe*, *by*, *eye*, *raw-ly*.

U and *i* are classed among the vowels. But observe that *u* is a consonant when it has the sound of *w* in *wet*; as in *quit*, *dissuade* [pronounced *kwit*, *dis-swade*]. *I*, also, is a consonant, when it has the sound of *y* in *yet*; as in *billion*, *brilliant* [pronounced *bil-yun*, *bril-yant*].

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distinguished? Give examples. For what do some letters stand? What do some sounds have to represent them? Give examples. How many sounds are represented by our twenty-six letters? 8. What difference is found in the utterance of the different letters? Accordingly, how are letters divided? What is a Vowel? What is a Consonant? 9. How many vowels are there? Name them. How many consonants? Name them. What are *w* and *y*? When are *w* and *y* consonants, and when vowels? When is *u* a consonant? Give examples. When is *i* a

10. Combinations of Vowels.—A **Diphthong** is a combination of two vowels in one syllable; as, *ai* in *vain*, *ow* in *cow*, *ea* in *beat*.

A **Proper Diphthong** is one in which both vowels are sounded; as, *oy* in *boy*, *ou* in *pound*.

An **Improper Diphthong** is one in which but one vowel is sounded; as, *ie* in *mien* [sounded like *e* in *me*], *au* in *fraud* [sounded like *a* in *all*].

A **Triphthong** is a combination of three vowels in one syllable; as, *iew* in *view*, *eau* in *beau*.

When *u* has the sound of *w* in *wet*, and *i* that of *y* in *yet*, they are consonants, and do not therefore, when followed by a vowel, unite with it to form a diphthong. There is no diphthong in the words *quack*, *sanguine*, *persuade*, *brilliant*, &c. So, there is no triphthong in *queen*; *u* is a consonant in that word, and *ee* a diphthong.

11. A **Final Letter** is one that ends a word. *T* is final in *rat*.

12. A **Silent Letter** is one not sounded. *E* is silent in *ice*, *k* in *knave*, *l* in *talk*, *w* in *wrong*.

EXERCISE.

In the following words, point out the vowels, consonants, final letters, silent letters, proper and improper diphthongs, and triphthongs:—Gnaw; wheat; humorously; quadrillion; liquor; yeast; beauties; sword; burlesque; two; squaw; eye-brow; hymn; coast-wise; viciously; walking-beam; psalm.

LESSON III.

ACCENT.—PRIMITIVE, DERIVATIVE, AND COMPOUND WORDS.

13. Accent.—When a word of two or more syllables

consonant? Give examples. 10. What is a Diphthong? What is a Proper Diphthong? What is an Improper Diphthong? What is a Triphthong? When *u* and *i* are consonants, what follows? 11. What is a Final Letter? 12. What is a Silent Letter?

13. Why is one syllable of a word heard more distinctly than the rest? What

is pronounced, one syllable is generally heard more distinctly than the rest; as, *ter* in *terrible*, *sleep* in *asleep*. This is because it receives more force, or *stress*, of voice.

Accent is stress of voice laid on a certain syllable when a word is uttered.

14. The syllable that receives the stress is said to be *accented*. It may be denoted by a mark called the Acute Accent (′), placed above it to the right; as, *lem′on*, *engrave′*.

The first syllable is accented in *orange*, *Canada*, *amiable;* the second, in *create*, *inviting*, *America;* the third, in *magazine*, *Alabama*, *irresistible;* the fourth, in *overfatigue*, *Adrianople*, *incomprehensible;* the fifth, in *indivisibility;* the sixth, in *incomprehensibility*.

15. A difference of accent sometimes serves to distinguish words spelled alike but differing in meaning. Thus *Au′gust* is the eighth month; *august′* is grave, majestic. A *gal′lant* is a brave man; a *gallant′* is a gay, fashionable one. A *con′cert* is a musical entertainment; to *concert′* plans is to contrive them. Observe a similar difference between a *per′fume* and to *perfume′*; an *ob′ject* and to *object′;* an *o′verflow* and to *overflow′*, &c.

16. Words classified according to their Formation.—As regards their formation, words are distinguished as Primitive, Derivative, and Compound.

A **Primitive** is a word not formed from any other in the language; as, *ice*, *house*, *arm*, *light*.

A **Derivative** is a word formed from a single simpler word, by the addition of a letter or letters to modify its meaning; as, *iced*, *houses*, dis*arm*, en*light*en.

A **Compound Word** is one formed of two or more words, whether primitives or derivatives; as, *ice-house*, *light-armed*, *backwoodsman*.

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is Accent? 14. What is an *accented* syllable? How may it be denoted? Give an example of words accented on the first syllable; on the second; on the third; on the fourth; on the fifth; on the sixth. 15. What does a difference of accent sometimes serve to do? Give examples. 16. As regards their formation, how are words divided? What is a Primitive? What is a Derivative? What is a Compound Word? How may a derivative be formed? How may a compound be

A derivative may be formed from a compound; as, *good-natured* from *good-nature*.

A compound may be formed of two derivatives; as, *rosy-cheeked* (*rosy*, from *rose*; *cheeked*, from *cheek*).

17. Accent of Compound Words.—In some compounds, there is but one accent; as, *gen'tleman*, *praise'worthy*. In others, each of the words compounded retains its accent; as, *writ'ing-mas'ter*, *man'y-col'ored*.

When there are more accents than one, the parts of the compound are generally connected with a short horizontal line (-), called the Hyphen. When there is but one accent in the compound, the hyphen is commonly omitted. See the examples in the last paragraph.

EXERCISE.

Pronounce as accented:—Inqui'ry; muse'um; camel'opard; hegi'ra; sono'rous; complaisance'; compla'cence; lyce'um; chival'ric; chiv'alrous; adver'tisement; mis'chievous; chas'tisement; exoter'ic; Ori'on; Aristi'des; Iphigeni'a; Ma'homet; Moham'med; Sardanapa'lus.

Classify as Primitive, Derivative, or Compound, and state which syllable is accented:—Hand; handy; unhandy; hand-writing; Mississippi; achievement; imperishable; unlooked-for; buttermilk; broken-hearted; narrow-mindedness; irritability; arithmetic; a rosewood chess-board, inlaid with mother-of-pearl.

LESSON IV.

FORMATION OF DERIVATIVES.—INSEPARABLE ROOTS.

18. Formation of Derivatives.—The primitive words of our language are few, compared with the

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formed? 17. What difference is found in the accentuation of compound words? Give examples. What is the Hyphen? When is the hyphen generally used between the parts of a compound? When is it commonly omitted?

18. How do primitive words compare in number with derivatives? Why is this? What derivatives are formed from the primitive *part*? How are these de-

derivatives. This is because many derivatives sometimes come from a single primitive. Thus from the primitive *part* are formed

counter*part*,	*party*,	un*part*ed,
de*part*,	*part*isan,	co*part*ner,
im*part*,	*part*icle,	im*part*ing, &c., &c.

It will be seen that these derivatives are formed by placing certain letters before or after the primitive, or both. The letters thus placed are called Prefixes and Suffixes.

19. Prefixes and Suffixes.—A **Prefix** is a letter or letters placed before a primitive or compound, to modify its meaning; as, *de* in *depart*, *un* in *ungentlemanly*.

A **Suffix** is a letter or letters placed after a primitive or compound, to modify its meaning; as, *isan* in *partisan*, *ly* in *ungentlemanly*.

Prefixes and suffixes modify the meaning of the word to which they are joined. Thus, the prefix *un* means *not;* the suffix *ness* means *the quality of being.* Then *unkind* means *not kind; kindness* is *the quality of being kind; unkindness* is *the quality of being not kind.* So with *unsound, soundness, unsoundness,* &c., &c.

20. Inseparable Roots. — Some derivatives come from roots not separately used as words. Thus, *avert, reverted, convertible,* and many other derivatives, come from the root *vert*, meaning *to turn.*

These roots are mostly from Latin words, and some of them enter into a great number of derivatives. The most important ones are given below with their meanings, and should be committed to memory.

INSEPARABLE ROOTS.

CEDE, CEED, CESS, to go.	CUR, CURS, to run.
CEIVE, CEPT, to take.	DICT, to say, to speak.
CLUDE, CLUS, to shut.	DUCE, DUCT, to lead.

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rivatives formed? 19. What is a Prefix? What is a Suffix? What is the force of prefixes and suffixes? Illustrate this with the prefix *un* and the suffix *ness.* 20. From what sort of roots do some derivatives come? Give examples. From what language are these inseparable roots mostly derived?

FECT, FICI, to do, make.
FER, to bear, to carry.
FUSE, to pour.
JECT, to cast.
LATE, to bear, to carry.
LECT, to choose, to gather.
LUDE, LUS, to play.
MIT, MISS, to send.
PEL, PULS, to drive.
PEND, PENS, to hang.
PONE, POSE, to place.
PORT, to carry.
SCRIBE, SCRIPT, to write.
SIST, to stand.
TAIN, TENT, to hold.
TEND, TENS, to stretch.
TRACT, to draw.
VENE, VENT, to come.

EXERCISE.

Spell and analyze the following derivatives:—[Thus:—*Receive* is a derivative from the inseparable root CEIVE, to take; *re* is a prefix.—*Mission* is a derivative from the inseparable root MISS, to send; *ion* is a suffix.—*Copartner* is a derivative from the primitive PART; *co* is a prefix, *ner* a suffix.] Tension; contradict; invented; susceptible; translate; tractable; confuse; prevent; sufficient; ductile; conference; scripture; postpone; subject; inducement; repel; averting; suppose; illusive.

LESSON V

PREFIXES.

[*For young classes, divide the following List and Exercise into three lessons, giving one third of each at a time.*]

21. A list of the most common prefixes follows; learn their meanings. It will be seen that some of them have different forms. In most cases, this is because the final letter is changed, to correspond with the first letter of the primitive or root. Thus we have *ac-climate*, *at-tend*, in stead of *ad-climate*, *ad-tend*.

A, 1. in, on.
2. [or AN], destitute of, want of.
3. [or AB, ABS], from, away.
AD [AC, AF, AG, AL, AN, AP, AR, AS, AT], to.
ANTE, before.
ANTI [ANT], opposed, opposite to.

BE, by, to make.
BI, two.
CIRCUM, around.
CON [CO, COL, COM, COR], together, a joint.
CONTRA [CONTRO, COUNTER], against.
DE, from, down, to make, to deprive of.
DIS [DI], apart, to remove, not.
EN [EM], in, to make, to make or put in.
EX [E, EC, EF], out, from, beyond.
IN [IG, IL, IM, IR], to make, to put in, not.
INTER, between.
MIS, wrong, ill.
OB [OC, OF, OP], before, against.
OUT, beyond, better.
PER, through, thoroughly.
PRE, before.
PRO, forth, forward, for.
RE, back, again.
SE, from, apart, out.
SEMI, half.
SUB [SUC, SUF, SUG, SUP, SUR, SUS], under, after.
SUPER [SUPRA, SUR], over, above, beyond.
TRANS [TRAN, TRA], over, across.
ULTRA, beyond.
UN, to remove, not.

EXERCISE.

Spell and define the following derivatives. They are arranged with their prefixes in the same order as those in the List. When a prefix has several meanings, one derivative is given to illustrate each. [Thus:—*A*blaze—spell—*in* a blaze. *A*fire—spell—*on* fire. *A*cephalous—spell—*destitute of* a head. *An*archy, *want of* government, &c.]

*A*blaze; *a*fire; *a*cephalous; *an*archy; *a*vert; *abs*tract; *ap*pend; *as*sist; *ante*room; *anti*-American; *ant*arctic; *be*side; *be*numb; *bi*form (having *two* forms); *circum*vent; *com*pose; *co*tenant; *contra*dict; *de*tain; *de*cry; *de*base; *de*fame; *di*late; *dis*burden; *dis*agreeable; *en*twine; *en*rich; *em*body; *e*duce; *ex*clude; *ex*ceed; *im*purple; *in*case; *ir*rational; *inter*lace; *mis*believe; *mis*fortune; *of*fer; *ob*ject'; *out*march; *out*sail; *per*ceive; *per*fect; *pre*occupy; *pro*duce; *pro*pel; *pro*consul; *re*pay; *re*print; *se*cede; *se*clude; *se*lect; *semi*tone; *sub*officer; *suc*ceed; *sur*mount; *super*scribe; *super*human; *trans*cribe; *trans*port; *ultra*montane (*beyond* the mountains); *un*load; *un*fit.

Arranged promiscuously:—Collect; suffix; embroil; apportion; imprison; supravulgar; anti-republican; antedate; deject; illegal; effuse; accede; controvert; allure; dispirit; infirm.

LESSON VI.

SUFFIXES.

[*For young classes, divide the following List and Exercise into two lessons, giving one half of each at a time.*]

22. A List of the most common suffixes follows; learn their meanings.

ABLE, IBLE, ILE, that may or can be, worthy of being.
AGE, a place where, the cost of, state or rank of, act of.
AL, relating to, the act of.
AN, AR, IAN, relating to, one who.
ARD, IST, OR, one who.
ATE, to make, made like, possessed of.
ED, did, possessed of.
EE, one who is.
EN, to make, made of.
ER, more, one who.
ES, S, more than one, does.
ESS, INE, IX, a female.
EST, most, dost.
FUL, OUS, EOUS, IOUS, Y, full of.
FY, IFY, IZE, to make.
HOOD, DOM, SHIP, the state, rank, domain of.
ING, ANT, ENT, continuing to.
ION, MENT, URE, the act of.
ISM, the state of being, system of.
KIN, LET, LING, OCK, ULE, CULE, a little.
LESS, without, that can not be.
LY, in a ( ) manner, like.
NESS, CE, CY, ITY, TY, the state or quality of being.
SOME, ISH, somewhat.
RY, ERY, the art or practice of.

EXERCISE.

Spell and define the following derivatives. They are arranged with their suffixes in the same order as those in the List. [Thus:—Charge*able*—spell—*that may be* charged. Honor*able*—spell—*worthy of being* honored. Moor*age*—spell—*a place where* to moor, &c.]

Charge*able;* honor*able;* moor*age;* pilot*age;* peer*age;* marri*age;* autumn*al;* acquitt*al;* Chilli*an;* column*ar;* guard*ian;* dull*ard;* psalm*ist;* grant*or;* valid*ate;* glob*ate;* fortun*ate;* kicked*;* good-humored*;* employ*ee;* short*en;* hemp*en;* quick*er;* keep*er;* fox*es;* ways*;* crush*es;* sits*;* priest*ess;* testatr*ix;* quick*est;* keep*est;* fear*ful;* pomp*ous;* watery*;* just*ify;* man*hood;* judge*ship;* king*dom;* beat*ing;* pend*ent;* miss*ion;* sensual*ism;* protestant-

ism; lamb*kin*; tear*less*; sate*less*; rash*ly*; queen*ly*; odd*ity*; sour*ness*; lone*some*; black*ish*; herald*ry*; buffoon*ery*.

LESSON VII.

ANALYSIS OF WORDS.

23. FORMATION OF DERIVATIVES.—A derivative may be formed by uniting two or more prefixes or suffixes with a primitive or inseparable root; as,

Re-ex-port, to carry-*out-again*.
Just-*ify-ing*, *continuing-to make*-just.
Re-col-lect-*ion-s*, *more than one-act of*-gathering-*together-again*.

A derivative may be formed by uniting a prefix or suffix with a compound; as, good-humor-*ed*, *having* good-humor.

24. FORMATION OF COMPOUND WORDS.—Compounds may be formed by uniting,

1. Two primitives; as, moon-beam.

2. A primitive and a derivative; as, bright-eyed.

ANALYSIS.—*Bright* is a primitive; *eyed* is a derivative from the primitive *eye*, meaning *having eyes; bright-eyed* is a compound, meaning *having bright eyes*.

3. Two derivatives; as, brightest-eyed.

ANALYSIS.—*Brightest* is a derivative from the primitive *bright*, meaning *most bright; eyed* is a derivative from the primitive *eye*, meaning *having eyes; brightest-eyed* is a compound, meaning *having the most bright eyes*.

4. An inseparable root and a primitive; as, multiform.

ANALYSIS.—*Multi* is an inseparable root, meaning *many; form* is a primitive; *multiform* is a compound, meaning *having many forms*.

5. Two inseparable roots; as, geography.

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23. How may a derivative be formed? Give examples. How else may a deriv-

ANALYSIS.—*Geo* is an inseparable root, meaning *the earth; graphy* is an inseparable root, meaning a *description; geography* is a compound, meaning *a description of the earth.*

25. The most important roots that enter into compound words are GRAPHY, *a description* or *history of*, and LOGY, *the science of*, or *a treatise on.* They appear in many words, combined with other roots; such as

BIO, life.	GEO, the earth.
ETHNO, a nation.	MYTHO, a fable.

EXERCISE.

Spell and analyze, according to the forms given above:—Reënforce; brightening; seemingly; unattracted; inadvertently; farsighted; gentlemanly; powder-horn; son-in-law; commander-in-chief; battering-ram; wood-pecker; pew-holder; unhoped-for; riding-schools; watering-places; biography; geography; ethnology; mythology.

LESSON VIII.

RULES OF SPELLING.

26. In forming compounds, the simple words are put together without change; as, *green-house.*

In forming derivatives, a prefix is joined to a primitive without change; as, *de-form.*

On adding a suffix, the primitive is changed in some cases, but not in others.

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ative be formed? 24. What is the first mode mentioned in which a compound may be formed? The second mode? Analyze *bright-eyed.* The third mode? Analyze *brightest-eyed.* The fourth mode? Analyze *multiform.* The fifth mode? Analyze *geography.* 25. What are the most important roots that enter into compound words? Mention some other inseparable roots, with which they are compounded, and their meanings.

26. What change is made in forming compounds? In forming derivatives with

When the suffix *ness* is added to the primitive *neat*, no change is made; the derivative is *neat-ness*. When it is added to *happy*, the final *y* is changed to *i*; the derivative is *happi-ness*.

27. RULES OF SPELLING.—The following rules cover most cases in which a change is made in the primitive on the addition of a suffix:—

RULE I.—Reject the final *e* of a primitive, when a suffix is added commencing with a vowel; as, *lie*, *li-ar*.

But retain final *e*, when preceded by *e* or *o*, if the suffix added is *able* or *ing*: as, *agree*, *agreeable*; *shoe*, *shoeing*.

Retain final *e*, when preceded by *c* or *g*, if the suffix added is *able* or *ous*: as, *notice*, *noticeable*; *outrage*, *outrageous*.

RULE II.—Reject *e* or *o* from words ending in *er* or *or*, when the suffix *ance*, *ess*, *ix*, or *ous* is added: as, *enter*, *entr-ance*; *testator*, *testatr-ix*.

But in many cases *e* or *o* is retained: as, *cancer*, *cancerous*; *author*, *authoress*.

RULE III.—Reject the final *le* of a primitive, if preceded by a consonant, when the suffix *ly* is added; as, *feeble*, *feeb-ly*.

RULE IV.—Double the final consonant of a monosyllable, if preceded by but one vowel, when a suffix is added commencing with a vowel: as, *stir*, *stirring*; *quit*, *quitting*.

But final *x* is never doubled; as, *ox*, *oxen*.

RULE V.—Double the final consonant of any word accented on the last syllable, if preceded by but one

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a prefix? In forming derivatives with a suffix? Give examples. 27. Recite Rule I., for the rejection of final *e*. [Examples are always to be given with Rules and Exceptions.] In what two cases is final *e* retained? Recite Rule II., for the rejection of *e* or *o*. Is *e* or *o* always rejected? Recite Rule III., for the rejection of final *le*. Recite Rule IV., for doubling the final consonant of a monosyllable. What consonant is never doubled? Recite Rule V., for doubling the final consonant of a word accented on the last syllable. In what case is the final consonant not doubled? Recite Rule VI., relating to the final *y* of a primitive. When must no change be made? What is the first exception relating to final *y*? What is the second exception?

vowel, when a suffix is added commencing with a vowel; as, *bestir, bestirring.*

But in this case and the last there is no doubling, if the final consonant is preceded by another consonant or by two vowels: as, *damp, damper; room, roomy; uncurl, uncurled; defraud, defrauded.*

RULE VI.—Change the final *y* of a primitive to *i*, when it is preceded by a consonant and a suffix is added not commencing with *i;* as, *try, tried.*

But make no change when a vowel precedes *y;* as, *toy, toy-ed:* or before a suffix commencing with *i;* as, *try, try-ing.*

Final *y* is sometimes changed to *e* before the suffix *ous;* as, *plenty, plenteous.*

Final *y* is sometimes rejected before a suffix commencing with *i* or *o:* as, *sympathy, sympath-ize; felicity, felicit-ous.*

EXERCISE.

Spell and define the following derivatives. State what change is made in forming each, and give the rule. [Thus:—*Cities*—spell —is a derivative, meaning *more than one city.* The final *y* of the primitive *city* is changed to *i* before the suffix *es,* according to Rule VI., "Change the final *y* of a primitive," &c.] Driver (drive-er); agitation; Roman; hindrance (hinder-ance); wondrous; idly (idle-ly); horribly; funny (fun-y); spotted; quizzing; impellest (impel-est); remittal; jollity (jolly-ty); heaviness; fanciful; bounteous (bounty-ous); piteous; eulogize (eulogy-ize); waitress; loathing; dimmer; arrival; demurred; spinner; empress; beauteous; ugliest; visibly; administratrix.

LESSON IX.

SYLLABICATION.

28. In spelling, divide a word into its syllables, and spell and pronounce each syllable separately.

29. In writing, sometimes from want of room part

28. In spelling, what must be done? 29. In writing, what sometimes happens?

of a word has to be carried to the next line. In this case, divide the word after a complete syllable, and place a hyphen at the end of the line to connect the separated parts; as, "Delays are dangerous."

30. Hence we must know how to divide words into syllables. This process is called Syllabication.

31. RULES OF SYLLABICATION.—In syllabication, the ear is our chief guide. In some words, the syllables are so marked that they are easily distinguished, as in *un-cer-tain-ty*. In others, however, the proper division is not so clear, and then the following rules will prove of service:—

RULE I.—Join consonants to the vowels whose sound they modify; as, *mel-on*,—not *me-lon*, because the *l* modifies the sound of the *e*. So, *rem-e-dy*, *reg-u-lar-i-ty*.

RULE II.—Make prefixes distinct syllables when it can be done without violating Rule I.; as, *de-fine*, *re-call*.

When a vowel sound in the prefix is modified by a consonant in the primitive, this consonant is joined to the prefix, according to Rule I. Thus we divide *def-i-ni-tion*, not *de-fi-ni-tion*; *rec-om-mend*, not *re-com-mend*.

RULE III.—Make suffixes distinct syllables unless they coalesce in sound with what precedes: as, *tend-ed*, not *ten-ded*; *in-vest-ing*, not *in-ves-ting*; *di-vid-ed*, not *di-vi-ded*.

But *ab-horred*, *walked*; here the suffix *ed* coalesces with what precedes, and therefore does not form a distinct syllable.

How must the word be divided in this case? 30. What is Syllabication? 31. In dividing words into syllables, by what are we chiefly guided? In what cases will rules be found necessary? Recite Rule I., relating to consonants. Recite Rule II., relating to prefixes. What is done when a vowel sound in the prefix is modified by a consonant in the primitive? Recite Rule III., relating to suffixes. Give examples in which *ed* does not form a distinct syllable. Recite Rule IV., relating to compound words. Recite Rule V., relating to certain terminations, and give

RULE IV.—Make syllabic divisions between the simple words that unite to form a compound; as, *where-as.*

RULE V.—Never divide the following terminations, and others that form one syllable:—

SION,	pronounced	*shun*,	as in	*ex-ten-sion.*
		or *zhun*,	"	*vi-sion.*
TION,	"	*shun*	"	*mo-tion.*
CIAL,	"	*shal*,	"	*spe-cial.*
TIAL,	"	*shal*,	"	*pres-i-den-tial.*
CEOUS,	"	*shus*,	"	*her-ba-ceous.*
GEOUS,	"	*jus*,	"	*cou-ra-geous.*
CIOUS,	"	*shus*,	"	*vi-cious.*
TIOUS,	"	*shus*,	"	*con-sci-en-tious.*

RULE VI.—When two consonants come together and it can be done without violating Rule III., or when a consonant is doubled before a vowel, divide between the two consonants; as, *tur-ban, for-bid-ding.*

32. DIÆRESIS.—Two *o's* generally unite to form a diphthong, as in *soon, foot.* In some words, however, they do not thus unite, but belong to separate syllables, as in *co-op-er-ate.* This is shown by placing two dots, called a Diæresis, over the second *o* (ö).

The **Diæresis** consists of two dots placed over the latter of two vowels that would otherwise form a diphthong, to show that they belong to separate syllables; as, *coöperate, preëxistent, aëronaut.*

When one of the two vowels belongs to a prefix, a hyphen may be used in stead of the diæresis; as, *co-operate, pre-existent.*

EXERCISE.

Spell the following words, dividing them into syllables:—Calico; market; balance; business; inseparable; ocean; aërostation; reentering; destroyed; transgression; serviceable; button-hole;

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examples. Recite Rule VI., for dividing between two consonants. 32. How are two *o's* generally sounded? How, when two dots are placed over the second *o*? Of what does the Diæresis consist? When may the hyphen be used instead of the diæresis?

giddy-brained; providential; liquorice; quotient; transientness; plenteously; gorgeous; unfashionable; voracious; re-admitted; zoölogy; reformation; irreproachable; apathy.

LESSON X.

FORMS OF THE LETTERS.

33. Roman Letters.—The letters that form the bulk of printed matter in English were first used at Rome in 1467. They are hence called Roman Letters.

34. Italics.—Besides Roman Letters, we use others that slant, *as in this clause.* These are called Italics.

35. Italics are often used for emphatic words, foreign terms, the names of vessels and newspapers, and examples of rules or definitions.

"*I* think the *Evening Journal* is wrong when it says that the prince and his *valet de chambre* sailed in the *Great Western* on Saturday."—Why is *I* italic? *Evening Journal?* *Valet de chambre?* *Great Western?*

36. In the Bible, italics are used for a different purpose. The Old Testament was written mostly in Hebrew, the New Testament in Greek. When these were translated into English, it was found necessary to supply here and there words not found in the original languages, to make the meaning clearer. The words thus supplied were put in italics.

37. Small Letters and Capitals.—Every letter has two forms: as, *a*, *A*; *b*, *B*. They are distinguished as Small Letters and Capitals.

By looking at any printed page, it will be found that it consists chiefly of small letters, but that certain words, such as those commencing sentences, begin with capitals. Rules for the use of capitals will be given hereafter.

EXERCISE.

Spell and define the derivatives formed by uniting the fol-

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33. What are the letters mostly used in our English books called? Whence did they get the name? 34. What are Italics? 35. For what are italics used? 36. For what are italics used in the Bible? 37. How many forms has every letter? What are they called? Which constitute the greater part of a printed page?

lowing primitives and suffixes, making such changes as are required by the Rules in § 27 :—Join-er (*one who joins*) ; employ-er ; begin-er ; plunder-er ; jolly-er ; rob-er ; cobble-er ; interpret-er ; steady-er ; steady-ing ; steady-ness ; coy-ness ; executor-ix ; fox-es ; fog-y ; stay-ing ; fly-ing ; fly-es ; vile-ly ; terrible-ly ; gun-ery ; censure-able ; pronounce-able ; omit-ed ; offer-ed ; beautify-ed ; beautify-ing ; plan-ing ; plane-ing ; complain-ing ; box-ing ; dis-agree-ing.

LESSON XI.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

38. THE PARTS OF SPEECH.—Words are the signs of ideas. In forming sentences, we combine different kinds of ideas, and therefore use different kinds of words.

Little dogs and kittens play gracefully.—Observe the different uses of the words in this sentence. *Dogs* and *kittens* are used to designate certain animals ; *and* is used to connect *dogs* and *kittens ; little*, to describe them ; *play*, to tell what they do ; *gracefully*, to tell how they play.

39. The English language contains over 100,000 words. They are divided into nine classes, called Parts of Speech, distinguished by the use that is made of them in sentences.

40. SENTENCE-BUILDING.—Every thing has a name. There is a large class of words, therefore, made up of the names of things. These are called Nouns. *Henry*, *Mary*, *dog*, *house*, &c., are names of different things, and therefore nouns.

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38. What are Words ? Why do we use different kinds of words ? Point out the uses of the several words in the sentence *Little dogs and kittens play gracefully.* 39. How many words does the English language contain ? How are they divided ? 40. Of what does the first class of words consist ? What are the names of things called ? When we name an object, what further do we generally do ? What are words that affirm called ? With what two parts of speech may we form a sentence ? Give an example. Do we generally stop here ? Tell what kind of dogs

We seldom name an object without affirming something about it. Words that affirm, are called Verbs. *Henry reads—Mary sang—Dogs bark; reads, sang, bark*, affirm something about *Henry, Mary, dogs*, and are therefore verbs.

We may form a sentence with a noun and verb alone; as, *Dogs bark.* But we seldom stop here. Taking the noun and verb as the basis, we may join other words to them, to express additional ideas, and thus build up longer sentences.

We may tell *what kind of* dogs bark. Cross *dogs bark.* Words that tell what kind of things is meant, are Adjectives.

We may tell *how* they bark. *Cross dogs bark* loudly. Words that tell how a thing is done, are called Adverbs.

The prefix *ad* means *to*. *Adverb* means *to a verb*. These words are so called because they are joined to verbs. The adverb *loudly* is joined to the verb *bark*.

We may tell *at whom* they bark. *Cross dogs bark loudly* at strangers. *Strangers* is a noun, because it is a name; and the little word *at*, which shows the relation between the verb *bark* and the noun *strangers*, is called a Preposition.

We may tell something else that dogs do. *Cross dogs bark loudly at strangers* and bite them.—*Bite* affirms, like *bark*, and is therefore a verb. *And*, which connects the two verbs, is called a Conjunction. *Them*

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bark. What are words that tell what kind of things is meant called? Tell how they bark. What are words that tell how a thing is done called? What is the meaning of the word *adverb*? Why are these words so called? Tell at whom the dogs bark. What does the little word *at* show? What is it called? What else may we tell about the dogs? What does *and* do? What is it called? How is *them* used? What is it called? If we mean some particular dogs and strangers, what word do we introduce? What is *the* called? If we wish to call attention to

is used in stead of the noun *strangers*, because it would sound ill to say, *bark loudly at strangers and bite* strangers. *Them* and all other words used in stead of nouns are called Pronouns.

We may mean some *particular* dogs and some *particular* strangers. In that case we introduce the word *the*. THE *cross dogs bark loudly at* THE *strangers and bite them.—The* is called an Article.

We may call attention to the barking of the dogs. HARK! *the cross dogs bark loudly at the strangers and bite them. Hark*, and other words thrown unconnectedly into a sentence, to express joy, sorrow, surprise, &c., are called Interjections.

41. SUMMING UP.—Thus we find nine classes of words, or Parts of Speech: Nouns, Pronouns, Articles, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

Every word in the language belongs to one of these nine classes. To find what part of speech any given word is in a sentence, see how it is used. This is the first thing required in Parsing.

EXERCISE.

What part of speech is each of the following words?

Hark! the cross dogs bark loudly at the strangers and bite them.

See! the playful lambs frisk gracefully in the grass and nibble it.

Lo! the glorious sun shines brightly on the hills and illumines them.

Give the names of all the articles you can think of that a grocer sells; as, sugar, tea, soap, &c. *What part of speech are these words?*

Mention all the adjectives you can think of that may be joined to the noun boy; *as*, a cross boy, a good boy, a pretty boy, &c.

Mention all the verbs you can think of that may be joined to the horse; *as*, the horse neighs, the horse trots, the horse eats, &c.

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the barking of the dogs, what do we say? What is *hark* called? 41. To sum up, how many parts of speech have we found? Name them. What is the first thing required in parsing?

Mention all the adverbs you can think of that may be joined to the horse trots; *as*, the horse trots slowly, awkwardly, &c.

LESSON XII.

NOUNS AND THEIR CLASSES.

42. THE NOUN.—The first part of speech is the Noun.

A **Noun** is a word used as a name.

43. The names of persons are nouns; as, *Eve*, *Saul*, *La Fayette*, *Earl Gray*, *General Jackson*, *Miss Ellen Fry*.

The names of places, countries, mountains, &c., are nouns; as, *city*, *town*, *village*, *hill*, *ocean*, *Belgium*, *Louisville*, *Sahara*, *Rocky Mountains*, *Atlantic Ocean*.

The names of things that can be seen, heard, felt, &c., are nouns; as, *ice*, *thunder*, *books*, *heat*, *tables*, *whispering*.

The names of things that are not seen, &c., but simply thought of, are nouns; as, *science*, *falsehood*, *temperance*, *diligence*.

The names of letters, figures, numbers, characters, &c., are nouns; as, *Em is a consonant; six and two are eight; plus indicates addition. Em*, *six*, *two*, *eight*, *plus*, are nouns.

Any word used merely as a word is a noun. When it is so used, *the word* may be introduced before it; as, "*Gracefully* is derived from *graceful* [that is, The word *gracefully* is derived from the word *graceful*]." "Many spell [the word] *busy* wrong." Here, *gracefully*, *graceful*, and *busy*, are nouns.

44. CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.—All objects of the same kind have the same general name. To distinguish objects of the same kind, we give each a name of its own not applicable to the rest of its class.

Thus all great elevations of land are called *mountains*. But particular mountains are distinguished by particular names; as, *Mount Washington*,

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42. What is the first part of speech? What is a Noun? 43. Specify some of the different names embraced among nouns, and give examples. When is any word a noun? How can we tell when a word is used merely as a word? Give examples. 44. What objects have the same general name? How do we distinguish objects of the same kind? Illustrate this. It follows that there are how

Mount Fairweather, the *Alps*, the *Pyrenees*. Hence there are two kinds of nouns, the names of classes and the names of individuals.

45. Nouns are either Common or Proper.

A **Common Noun** is a name that may be applied to all objects of the same kind; as, *boy*, *nation*, *country island*, *dog*.

A **Proper Noun** is the name of an individual object, which can not be applied to all others of the same kind; as, *Richard*, (the) *Danes*, *Peru*, *Ireland*, *Carlo*.

46. Several individuals may have the same name. There are many boys called *Richard*, many dogs called *Carlo*. But since *all* boys are not called *Richard*, nor *all* dogs *Carlo*, *Richard* and *Carlo* are proper nouns.

47. The names of nations, though belonging in common to many individuals, distinguish one body of people from all others of the same kind. They are therefore proper nouns, whether applied to all that compose the nation, or to single individuals; as, the *Germans*, a *Turk*.

48. Proper nouns always begin with capitals. See the above examples.

49. A noun usually common becomes proper,

1. When it denotes a particular event, place, &c., more conspicuous or familiar than others of the same name; as the *Creation*, the *Square*, the *Channel* (meaning the English Channel).

2. When it denotes an inanimate object *personified*, that is, addressed or spoken of as a person; as, "Numberless are thy blessings, O Health!" "Winter wraps his white cloak about him." "Hope whispers in the ears of the young."—Here *Health*, *Winter*, *Hope*, are personified. They must be parsed as proper nouns, and must commence with capitals.

EXERCISE.

Mention the nouns and their class:—Seven metals were known to the ancients; namely, gold, silver, iron, copper, tin, lead, and mercury.—Mercury is nearer the Sun than any other planet.—

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many kinds of nouns? 45. Name the two classes of nouns. What is a Common Noun? What is a Proper Noun? 46. Is a name belonging to several individuals common or proper? Why so? 47. What do the names of nations distinguish? Are they common or proper nouns? 48. How must proper nouns always begin?

Homer was a great poet.—John Milton is the Homer of English literature.—Noah, and his three sons, Shem, Ham, and Japhet, with their wives, survived the Flood.—Pleasure tries to entice the young from the paths of virtue.—The Channel is noted for its rough weather, as travellers going from England to France often learn to their disgust.

LESSON XIII.

SUBDIVISIONS OF COMMON NOUNS.

50. Common Nouns embrace Collective, Participial, Diminutive, and Abstract Nouns.

51. A **Collective Noun** is the name of a body or collection of individuals; as, *nation*, *mob*, *society*, *jury*, *herd*, *swarm*.

52. The name of a collection of objects without life is not, in most cases, a collective noun. *Pile*, *heap*, *mass*, *perfumery*, *furniture*, *stationery*, &c., are simply *common* and not *collective* nouns.

53. A **Participial Noun** is the name of an action or state, ending in *ing*; as, "*Seeing* is *believing*."

54. A **Diminutive Noun** is the name of something small of its kind, derived from a primitive by the addition of a suffix.

Diminutives are formed with the suffixes *kin*, *let*, *ling*, *ock*, *ule*, *cule*, *cle*, *icle*, *et*, or *aster*, meaning *a little*. *Streamlet* (a little stream), *gosling* (a young goose), *animalcule* (a little animal), are diminutives.

55. An **Abstract Noun** is the name of a quality or property; as, *obstinacy*, *benevolence*, *smoothness*, *sour ness*.

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49. What is the first case in which a noun usually common becomes proper? What is the second case? How must the names of objects personified be parsed? How must they commence?

50. What classes are embraced among common nouns? 51. What is a Collective Noun? 52. Are *pile*, *heap*, *furniture*, collective nouns? Why not? 53. What is a Participial Noun? 54. What is a Diminutive Noun? Mention the suffixes

56. Proper nouns are said to be Complex, when they consist of several names, or a name and title; as, *William Henry Harrison, Lord Edward Talbot.*

EXERCISE.

Mention the nouns and their class. [Thus:—*North Carolina* is a complex proper noun; *blackbirds* is a common noun; *flocks* is a collective common noun, &c.] In North Carolina blackbirds are sometimes seen in flocks a mile long.—Musk is obtained from the musk-deer, an animal of great agility, found in Siberia and on the Himalaya Mountains.—Certain tribes of Asia are tormented by swarms of ants, which march through their dwellings in little armies.—The sweetness, beauty, and modesty of the violet make me admire it more than any other floweret.—Lying and swearing are marks of a base mind.

Complete the following sentences by supplying such nouns as are indicated:—The (*proper noun*) and (*proper*) are rivers of North America.—A soldier should have great (*abstract*) and (*abstract*).—A poultry-yard contains many (*collective*) of chickens, (*common*), and (*diminutive*).—Immense (*collective*) of bees and (*collective*) of horses are found in the (*common*) of Texas.—Crossing a (*diminutive*), we saw before us a verdant (*common*).—Sir John Franklin and (*complex proper*) distinguished themselves by explorations in the Arctic (*common*).—Promenading, (*participial*), and (*participial*), are the principal amusements at a watering-place.

LESSON XIV.

THE PERSON OF NOUNS.

57. Observe these three sentences:—

I, James, promise to go.
James, do you promise to go?
James promises to go.

In the first sentence, James is represented as speaking; in the second,

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with which diminutives are formed. 55. What is an Abstract Noun? 56. When are proper nouns said to be Complex?

57. Repeat the three sentences presented. How is James represented in the

as spoken to; in the third, as spoken of. To denote these three different relations, we say that in the first sentence the noun *James* is *in the first person;* in the second, it is *in the second person;* in the third, *in the third person.* Every noun must be in one of these three persons.

58. **Person** is that property which distinguishes objects as speaking, spoken to, or spoken of.

59. There are three Persons; the First, the Second, and the Third.

The **First Person** denotes the speaker; the **Second Person,** the object spoken to; the **Third Person,** the object spoken of.

First Person.—I, *John Adams, president* of the United States.—We *mortals* are short-lived.—Written by the hand of me, *Timothy.*—There is little virtue in us *men.*

Second Person.—John Adams, you were once president of the United States.—O short-lived *mortals!*—Go to, thou *fool!*—Answer me, ye *friends* of liberty.

Third Person.—I, John Adams, am *president* of the *United States.*—All *mortals* are short-lived.—The *fool* laughs at his own *folly.*—Ye are but *pilgrims* in the *land.*

60. It will be seen from these examples that a noun has the same form in all three persons. We can not, therefore, tell its person by its form, but must ask whether it denotes an object speaking, spoken to, or spoken of.

61. Most of the nouns met with in sentences are in the third person. The names of things without life are always in the third person, unless they are personified.

62. The third person is sometimes used for the first. Thus Winchester says, "As will the rest, so willeth *Winchester,*"—in stead of "so will *I.*" Here Winchester uses his own name as that of a person spoken of, and the noun *Winchester* is in the third person.

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first sentence? How, in the second? How, in the third? How do we denote these different relations? 58. What is Person? 59. Name the persons. What is denoted by the First Person? What, by the Second? What, by the Third? Give examples of each. 60. What will be seen from these examples? How are we to tell the person of a noun? 61. What is the person of most nouns? Of what person are the names of things without life? 62. For what is the third person some-

63. The third person is also sometimes used for the second. Thus, "Let not my *lord* [third person] be angry with his servant;" where the meaning is, "My *lord* [second person], be not angry with thy servant."

64. In formal letters and invitations, the third person is often thus used for both the first and the second. Thus, "The *Secretary* of State has the honor to acknowledge receipt of *Gov. Winter's* favor of the 3d instant, and begs leave to reply," &c. This is more formal than if the Secretary were to write:—"*I* have the honor to acknowledge receipt of *your* favor of the 3d instant, and beg leave to reply," &c.

EXERCISE.

Mention the nouns, their class, and person. [Thus:—*Travelling* is a participial common noun, in the third person.] Travelling is sometimes hard work.—The last words of Mohammed were:—"O God, pardon my sins! Yes, I come among my fellow-citizens on high."—Angels and ministers of grace, defend us!—How full of sorrow was the breast of the Indian chief Logan, when he exclaimed:—"Who is there to mourn for Logan? Not one."—Leading the way over a hillock which lay before his regiment, he cried, "Come on, my men; I, your colonel, will be the first to meet the foe."—We Americans do every thing in a hurry; you Germans have more patience and deliberation.

LESSON XV.

THE NUMBER OF NOUNS.

One *year*.

Two *years*; five *years*; ten *years*; a thousand *years*.

65. Observe, in these expressions, that when *one* is spoken of, the word *year* is used; when *more than one* are referred to, the form changes to *years*.

66. **Number** is that property which distinguishes objects as denoting one or more than one.

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times used? Give an example. 63. For what else is the third person sometimes used? 64. In what is the third person often thus used for both the first and the second? Give an example.

65. What is to be observed when we say *one year, two years, five years*?

67. There are two numbers, the Singular and the Plural.

The **Singular** denotes one; the **Plural**, more than one.

68. FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.—*Rule I.*—To form the plural, most nouns add *s* to the singular: as, hat, hat*s*; dwarf, dwarf*s*; money, money*s*; cuckoo, cuckoo*s*.

Th final is sounded as in *think*. In some words in which these final letters are preceded by a vowel, when *s* is added for the plural, their sound changes to that of *th* in *this*: as, path, pa*ths*; wreath, wrea*ths*; oath, oa*ths*.

Rule II.—Nouns ending as follows take *es* to form their plural:—

1. In *ch* not sounded like *k*; as, torch, torch*es*.
2. In *s* and *sh*: as, gas, gas*es*; gash, gash*es*.
3. In *x* and *z*: as, tax, tax*es*; waltz, waltz*es*.
4. In *i*, *o*, or *u*, preceded by a consonant: as, alkali, alkali*es*; cargo, cargo*es*; gnu, gnu*es*.

Exceptions in o.—Canto, canto*s*; duo-decimo, duo-decimo*s*; grotto, grotto*s*; halo, halo*s*; junto, junto*s*; lasso, lasso*s*; major-domo, major-domo*s*; memento, memento*s*; octavo, octavo*s*; portico, portico*s*; quarto, quarto*s*: sirocco, siroccos: solo, solo*s*; tyro, tyro*s*.

5. Common nouns in *y* preceded by a consonant take *es*, and in so doing change their final *y* to *i* (*Rule VI.*, p. 21): as, fly, fl*ies*; obloquy, obloqu*ies*.

Observe that in the last example *u* following *q* has the sound of *w* [oblo*kwy*], and is therefore a consonant.

Rule III.—The following nouns ending in *f* and *fe*

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66. What is Number? 67. Name the numbers. What does the Singular denote? The Plural? 68. How is the plural of most nouns formed (Rule I.)? What remark is made about nouns ending in *th*? What nouns take *es* to form their plural? Mention the exceptions in *o*, that form their plural with *s* alone. How do common nouns in *y* preceded by a consonant form their plural? How is it that *obloquy* falls under this rule? How do eleven nouns in *f* and three in *fe* form their plural

form their plural by changing *f* or *fe* into *ves:* beef, beeves; leaf, leaves; sheaf, sheaves; thief, thieves; loaf, loaves; calf, calves; half, halves; elf, elves; self, selves; shelf, shelves; wolf, wolves; life, lives; knife, knives; wife, wives.

Wharf makes both *wharfs* and *wharves.*

Staff (a cane) makes *staffs* and *staves.* In the second form the *a* has the same sound as in the first, to distinguish the word, when pronounced, from the plural of *stave.* All the compounds of *staff*, and *staff* itself when it means a body of military officers, form the plural by adding *s;* as, tipstaff, tipstaffs.

Rule IV.—Most proper nouns take *s* to form their plural: as, Cato, the Catos; Antony, the Antonys.

Proper nouns ending in *s* and *x* take *es* to form their plural: as, Venus, the Venuses; Ajax, the Ajaxes.

Some proper nouns ending in *y*, in frequent use, form their plural by changing *y* into *ies:* as, Sicily, the Sicilies; Ptolemy, the Ptolemies.

EXERCISE.

Spell and define the plural of the following words: [Thus:—*d-a-y-s*, more than one day.] Day; table; niche; search; beach; guess; atlas; sash; brush; fox; quiz; rabbi; halo; echo; grotto; solo; colloquy; calf; chief; knife; stave; staff (cane); distaff; Henry; Emily; Sicily; Pythagoras; Hercules; Confucius; Nero; monarch; roof; balcony; bench; trio; Judas; Cicero; shelf; gulf; (a general's) staff; sofa; cadi; dahlia; fuchsia.

Spell the singular:—Cobblers; chimneys; enigmas; sepulchres; porte-monnaies; mementos; selves; safes; stitches; enemies; hoofs; follies; canoes; folios; twos; toes; hippopotamuses; the Rosciuses; the Alleghanies; the Colfaxes.

(Rule III.) ? Give these nouns. What does *wharf* make in the plural? What does *staff*, a cane, make? What does *staff*, a body of military officers, make? What do the compounds of *staff* make? How do most proper nouns form their plural? How do proper nouns ending in *s* and *x* form their plural? How do some proper nouns ending in *y* form their plural?

LESSON XVI.

IRREGULAR PLURALS.

69. NOUNS IRREGULAR IN THE PLURAL.—The following nouns are irregular in the plural:—

Sing.	*Plu.*	*Sing.*	*Plu.*	*Sing.*	*Plu.*
Child,	children.	Louse,	lice.	Ox,	oxen.
Foot,	feet.	Mouse,	mice.	Tooth,	teeth.
Goose,	geese.	Man,	men.	Woman,	women.

70. Compounds in which these words stand last, form their plural similarly: as, boatman, boat*men;* eye-tooth, eye-*teeth;* gentlewoman, gentle*women.* Words that end in *man*, but are not compounds of the word *man*, form their plural regularly by annexing *s:* as, German, Germans; caiman, caimans.

71. *Cow*, which now makes *cows*, formerly made *kine.*

72. DOUBLE PLURAL FORMS.—The following nouns have both a regular and an irregular plural, with different meanings:—

Singular.	*Regular Plural.*	*Irregular Plural.*
Brother,	*brothers* (of a family),	*brethren* (of a society).
Die,	*dies* (stamps for coining),	*dice* (cubes for gaming).
Genius,	*geniuses* (men of genius),	*genii* (spirits).
Head,	*heads* (parts of the body),	*head* (of cattle).
Index,	*indexes* (tables of contents),	*indices* (algebraic exponents).
Pea,	*peas* (distinct grains),	*pease* (taken in bulk).
Penny,	*pennies* (distinct coins),	*pence* (an amount of money).
Sail,	*sails* (pieces of canvas),	*sail* (vessels).

73. NOUNS ALIKE IN BOTH NUMBERS.—The following are alike in both numbers:—*Alms*, *bass* (a fish), *bellows*,

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69. What does *child* make in the plural? *Foot? Goose? Mouse? Man? Ox? Tooth? Woman?* 70. What compounds of these words form their plural similarly? How do words that end in *man*, but are not compounds of the word *man*, form their plural? What is the plural of *boatman? German?* 71. What is the plural of *cow?* 72. What are the two plurals of *brother*, and their meaning? Of *die? Genius? Head? Index? Pea? Penny? Sail?* 73. Mention the nouns alike

cannon, *corps* (pronounced *kore* in the singular, *kores* in the plural), *deer*, *grouse*, *hose* (old plural, *hosen*), *means*, *odds*, *rest* (that which remains, those who remain), *salmon*, *series*, *sheep*, *species*, *superficies*, *swine*, *vermin* (seldom used in the singular).

74. *Summons* makes both *summons* and *summonses* in the plural; *gallows*, *gallows* and *gallowses*; *heathen*, *heathen* and *heathens*.

75. *Fish* makes *fish*, and less frequently *fishes*. *Fish* should always be used when a quantity is spoken of, and not a number of individuals; as, a good mess of *fish*.—The compounds of *fish* are alike in both numbers; as, two *cod-fish*, six *sword-fish*, many *shell-fish*.

The names of different kinds of fish have, for the most part, two plurals; one (commonly used) like the singular, and a regular form in *s* or *es*. Thus, herring, *herring* and *herrings*; mackerel, *mackerel* and *mackerels*, &c. When a quantity is spoken of, the unchanged form should be used: as, a hundred barrels of *mackerel*; a basketful of *trout*.

So, the word *fowl* and the names of certain materials, besides their regular plurals in *s*, take a plural form like the singular when they are spoken of in bulk: as, flocks of *sea-fowl*; altars of *brick*; a load of *plank*.

76. *Brace*, *dozen*, *pair*, and *score*, besides their regular plural in *s*, take a form like the singular, when preceded by a word expressing number. We say, fifty *brace* of pheasants, two *dozen* of ale, four *pair* of stairs, three *score* and ten; BUT, fowls are sold in *pairs*, pheasants in *braces*; they came by *dozens* and *scores*.

77. PLURAL OF FIGURES, &c.—The plural of figures, letters, characters, &c., is formed by annexing an apostrophe and *s* (*'s*); as, "She must make her 4*'s*, *k'*s, +*'s*, and ;*'s* better."

EXERCISE.

Form the plural:—Foster-child; club-foot; beangoose; field-mouse; madman; musk-ox; wisdom-tooth; tooth-brush; horse-

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in both numbers. 74. What does *summons* make in the plural? *Gallows*? *Heathen*? 75. *Fish*? When should *fish* be used for the plural? What do the compounds of *fish* make in the plural? What do the names of different kinds of fish make in the plural? Which form should be used when a quantity is spoken of? What other words follow the same rule as *fish* in their plural? 76. What is said of the plural of *brace*, *dozen*, *pair*, and *score*? Illustrate this. 77. How is the plural of figures, letters, characters, &c., formed?

woman; policeman; Turcoman; bellows; sea-bass; musk-deer; sun-fish; sturgeon; blackfish; water-fowl; the mayor's [*brothers* or *brethren?*]; the [*brothers* or *brethren?*] of the Independent Order of Odd Fellows; back-gammon is played with [*dies* or *dice?*]; Addison and the other [*geniuses* or *genii?*] of Queen Anne's reign; good [*geniuses* or *genii?*] protect thee; twenty [*heads* or *head?*] of oxen; the [*indexes* or *indices?*] of these books are imperfect; a bushel of [*peas* or *pease?*]; four [*peas* or *pease?*] in a pod; he owes me two [*pennies* or *pence?*]; two bad [*pennies* or *pence?*]; the [*sails* or *sail?*] are set; a fleet of twenty-five [*sails* or *sail?*].

LESSON XVII.

PLURAL OF COMPOUND AND COMPLEX NOUNS.

78. Elements of Compound Words.—The simple words that enter into a compound word are called its Elements.

In some compounds, these elements are of equal importance, as in *piano-forte*. In others, there is one leading element, which the others merely modify; as in *sister-in-law*, *hanger-on*, in which *sister* and *hanger* are the leading elements.

79. Plural of Compound Nouns.—Compound Nouns, to form their plural, generally vary their principal element: as, step-son, step-*sons;* woman-hater, woman-*haters;* sister-in-law, *sisters*-in-law; knight-errant, *knights*-errant; cousin-german, *cousins*-german; hanger-on, *hangers*-on; aide-de-camp, *aides*-de-camp; billet-doux, *billets*-doux; chargé-d'-affaires, *chargés*-d'-affaires; chef-d'-œuvre, *chefs*-d'-œuvre.

78. What is meant by the Elements of a compound word? What difference is noted with respect to the elements of words? 79. How do compound nouns generally form their plural? Give examples. 80. What compounds take the plural termination at the end? 81. What is the plural of *man-child? Man-ser-*

80. Compounds ending in *ful*, those formed of elements of equal importance, and some foreign compounds in common use, take the plural termination at the end; as, pailful*s*, penny-a-liner*s*, jack-a-lantern*s*, habeas-corpus*es*, ipse-dixit*s*.

81. The following compounds vary both elements:—

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Man-child,	men-children.	Woman-singer,	women-singers.
Man-servant,	men-servants.	Knight-templar,	knights-templars.
Man-singer,	men-singers.	Knight-baronet,	knights-baronets.
Woman-servant,	women-servants.	Knight-hospitaller,	knights-hospitallers.

82. Plural of Complex Proper Nouns.—When complex proper nouns are preceded by *the*, and denote a whole class having the character of an individual, the last name takes the plural termination; as, "The Sir Isaac Newton*s* of the present century".

83. In all other cases, the title alone, when there is one, should be pluralized: as, *Governors* Morgan, Hicks, and Purdy; *Mayors* White and Kenny; the *Misses* and *Masters* Davies; the *Messrs.* Plum.

84. Parse such expressions thus: *Governors* is a proper noun, in the third person, plural number. *Morgan*, *Hicks*, and *Purdy*, are proper nouns, in the third, singular. *Misses* (*Davies*) is a complex proper noun, in the third, plural. *Masters* Davies is a complex proper noun, in the third, plural. *Messrs. Plum* is a complex proper noun, in the third, plural.

85. In cases like the last two examples in § 83, usage differs. Some pluralize the name and not the title, particularly when a word expressing number precedes, or when the title is *Mrs.*, which has no distinct plural form; as, the three Mr. *Plums*, the Mrs. *Plums*. Others, again, pluralize both title and name; as, the *Messrs. Plums*. This is decidedly wrong.

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vant? Man-singer? Woman-servant? Woman-singer? Knight-templar? Knight-baronet? Knight-hospitaller? 82. When do complex proper nouns take the plural termination at the end? 83. In other cases, how do complex proper nouns consisting partly of a title form their plural? 84. How are such expressions parsed? 85. What difference of usage is mentioned in forming the plural of complex proper

It seems preferable in all cases to pluralize the title alone:—

1. Because uniformity is desirable, and there are some cases in which no other form will answer; as, *Mayors* White and Kenny, *Misses* Sarah and Augusta Grey.

2. Because then we show the exact spelling of the name, which might otherwise be mistaken.

3. Because we thus sometimes avoid awkward variations of the proper name, such as the Miss *Perkinses*, the Mr. *Youngses*, the Master *Davieses*.

86. The title *Mrs.* (an abbreviation of *mistress*, pronounced *missis*) is alike in both numbers; as, *Mrs.* Hay, the two *Mrs.* Hay.

EXERCISE.

Form the plural:—Brother-in-law; step-daughter; holder-forth; court-martial; court-marshal; account-book; backwoods-man; chimney-sweeper; quartermaster-general; basketful; tinder-box; goose-quill; camera-obscura; tête-à-tête; man-servant; the Julius Cæsar (*pl.*) and Peter the Great (*pl.*) of modern times; General Burgoyne and Gates; the Earl of Northumberland and Devonshire; Lord Hastings and Grey; Alderman Brady and Jones; the Miss Packard; Master George and Henry Talbot; the Mrs. Montague.

LESSON XVIII.

PLURAL OF FOREIGN NOUNS.

87. Foreign Nouns.—Foreign nouns are nouns introduced into English from other languages without change. As regards their plural, they may be divided into three classes:—

1. Those that take the regular English plural; as, asylum, *asylums*.

2. Those that take both the foreign and the regular English plural; as, cherub, *cherubim* and *cherubs*.

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nouns consisting partly of a title? Which is approved as the best form? For what three reasons? 86. What is the plural of *Mrs.*?

87. What are Foreign Nouns? As regards their plural, how may they be di-

3. Scientific and rare words, which have the foreign plural only; as, ellipsis, *ellipses*.

88. Rules for the Plural of Foreign Nouns.—In forming foreign plurals, the following rules apply:—The termination

A becomes *æ*, sometimes ATA: larv*a*, larv*æ*; miasm*a*, miasm*ata*.
Is becomes ES, sometimes IDES: ax*is*, ax*es*; aps*is*, aps*ides*.
Us becomes I; mag*us*, mag*i*:—BUT, ge'n*us*, gen'*era*.
Um and on become A: dat*um*, dat*a*; phenomen*on*, phenomen*a*.
Ex and ix become ICES: vort*ex*, vort*ices*; he'l*ix*, hel'*ices*.
O becomes I; virtuos*o*, virtuos*i*.

89. Table.—The following Table contains the most important nouns that retain their foreign plural. The letter R. after the foreign form indicates that the word has also the regular English plural; as, beau, *beaux* and *beaus*.

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Alumnus,	alumni.	Calculus,	calculi.
Amanuensis,	amanuenses.	Ca'lyx,	cal'yces, R.
Analysis,	analyses.	Cherub,	cherubim*, R.
Animalculum,	animalcula.	Chrys'alis,	chrysal'ides.
Antithesis,	antitheses.	Cica'da,	cica'dæ.
Apex,	ap'ices, R.	Cicerone,	ciceroni, R.
Aphelion,	aphelia.	Crisis,	crises.
Appendix,	appen'dices, R.	Criterion,	criteria, R.
Aquarium,	aquaria, R.	Datum,	data.
Arcanum,	arcana.	Desideratum,	desiderata.
Automaton,	automata, R.	Diæresis,	diæreses.
Axis,	axes.	Effluvium,	effluvia.
Banditto,	banditti.	Ellipsis,	ellipses.
Basis,	bases.	Encomium,	encomia, R.
Beau,	beaux, R.	Ephem'eris,	ephemer'ides.

* The double plurals, *cherubims* and *seraphims*, should be avoided.

vided? 88. What do foreign nouns in *a* make in the plural? Foreign nouns in *is*? Foreign nouns in *us*? Foreign nouns in *um* and *on*? Foreign nouns in *ex* and *ix*? Foreign nouns in *o*? 89. What is the plural of *apex*? *Aquarium*? *Beau*? *Cherub*? *Seraph*? *Madame*? *Mr.*? *Radius*? *Focus*? *Criterion*?

Singular.	*Plural.*
Erratum,	errata.
Focus,	foci.
Formula,	formulæ, R.
Fulcrum,	fulcra, R.
Fungus,	fungi, R.
Ge'nus,	gen'era.
Gymnasium,	gymnasia, R.
He'lix,	hel'ices.
Herbarium,	herbaria, R.
Hypothesis,	hypotheses.
Ignis fatuus,	ignes fatui.
Lamina,	laminæ.
Larva,	larvæ.
Madame,	mesdames.
Magus,	magi.
Medium,	media, R.
Memorandum,	memoranda, R.
Menstruum,	menstrua.
Metamor'phosis,	metamor'phoses.
Miasma,	miasmata.
Momentum,	momenta, R.
Monsieur,	messieurs.
Mr.,	messrs.
Nebula,	nebulæ.
Nucleus,	nuclei, R.
Oasis,	oases.
Parenthesis,	parentheses.
Parhelion,	parhelia.
Perihelion,	perihelia.
Phasis,	phases.
Phenomenon,	phenomena.
Radius,	radii, R.
Rostrum,	rostra.
Sarcophagus,	sarcophagi, R.
Scholium,	scholia, R.
Seraph,	seraphim, R.
Spectrum,	spectra.
Speculum,	specula.
Sta'men,	stam'ina, R.
Stimulus,	stimuli.
Stratum,	strata, R.
Synopsis,	synopses.
Terminus,	termini.
Thesis,	theses.
Vertebra,	vertebræ.
Vertex,	vertices, R.
Virtuoso,	virtuosi, R.
Vortex,	vortices, R.

EXERCISE.

Change the following incorrect plurals to the proper form:— Vallies; bambooes; embargos; buffalos; grottoes; soloes; energys; soliloquys; sea-calfs; loafs; flag-staves; the Scipio's; the Brutus's; the Alleghanys; talismen; Musselmen; dollars are stamped with heavy *dice;* the ancients believed in good and bad *geniuses;* ten *pennies* a yard; two good *pence;* we must buy new *sail* for the vessel; son-in-laws; men-slayer; going-forths; spoonsful; knight-templars; cannons; bellowses; specieses; a large haul of *shads* and *herrings;* five weak fishes; a bagful of *water-fowls;* twelve *pairs* of gloves; eight scores; the General Knox and Gates; the Miss Maria and Susan Whites; the three Masters Higginses; Messrs. Allens; stimuluses; erratums; geni; phenomenas; crisises; ellipsides; myrmida (*ons*); octaga.

LESSON XIX.

NOUNS NOT USED IN BOTH NUMBERS.

90. Some nouns are found in but one number.

91. Singular Nouns.—The following nouns have no plural:—

1. Many abstract nouns, the names of virtues, vices, and properties; as, *courage*, *idleness*, *cohesion*, *roundness*.

2. The names of many arts, sciences, and diseases; as, *architecture*, *rhetoric*, *bronchitis*.

3. The names of many articles sold by weight or measure; as, *flax*, *lard*, *lead*, *cider*, *milk*, *pitch*, *rye*. Some of these, however, take a regular plural when different kinds are spoken of; as, the *teas* of China, the *silks* of India.

92. The word *news* is singular. *Apocrypha*, *hysterics*, *measles*, and the names of sciences ending in *ics* (as, *mechanics*, *hydraulics*, *politics*, &c.), having a plural form, are by some used as plural; others, with better reason, make them singular, as they convey singular ideas.

93. Plural Nouns.—The following nouns have no singular now in good use:—

Aborigines	Calends	Greens	Minutiæ	Suds
Annals	Cattle	Grounds (dregs)	Morals	Teens
Antipodes	Clothes	Hatches	Nones	Thanks
Archives	Dregs	Headquarters	Nuptials	Tidings
Ashes	Eaves	Ides	Paraphernalia	Trowsers
Assets	Embers	Lees	Ravellings	Vespers
Belles-lettres	Entrails	Literati	Regalia	Victuals
Billiards	Filings	Mammalia	Riches	Vitals
Bitters	Fireworks	Manners	Shambles	Wages
Breeches	Goods	Matins	Spectacles	Withers

90. What is said about some nouns, as regards number? 91. Name three classes of nouns not used in the plural. When do some articles sold by weight or measure take a plural? 92. In what number is *news*? What is the number of *apocrypha*, *measles*, and names of sciences in *ics*? 93. Mention some of the most common nouns that have no singular. What names may be added to this list?

To these may be added *colors* (banners), *drawers* (an article of clothing), *letters* (literature), the names of instruments composed of two parts (as, *compasses*, *scissors*, *tongs*, *tweezers*, &c.), and the scientific names of many orders and families of beasts, birds, fish, and insects.

EXERCISE.

Mention the nouns, their class, person, and number. [Thus:—*Banditti* is a common noun, in the third person, plural number.] The banditti, both horse and foot, entered the town, carried off twenty head of cattle, and put to death the Count of Orsini's brothers.—You Laplanders have large herds of reindeer.—Codfish and mackerel are caught in great numbers near Newfoundland.—Great crises produce great geniuses, as the annals of many people will show.—Jack-o'-lanterns, or as they are otherwise called *ignes fatui*, consist of luminous gases that rise in marshy places.—Elizabeth, Anne, and Victoria, rank among the best of the English sovereigns.—Generals Greene and Sullivan took part in the battle of Brandywine.—The Marquis of La Fayette had five corps of infantry and two small cannon.

LESSON XX.

THE GENDER OF NOUNS.

Boy	Girl
Lion	Lioness
Man-singer	Woman-singer

94. Compare the words in the first column with those opposite to them in the second. The former denote *males;* the latter, *females.* Some nouns, therefore, indicate the sex of the objects they represent.

95. **Gender** is that property which distinguishes objects as male or female.

96. There are two genders, the Masculine and the Feminine.

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94. Look at the words in the two columns. What do those in the first column denote? Those in the second? What, therefore, do some nouns indicate? 95. What is Gender? 96. Name the genders. What does the Masculine Gender denote?

The **Masculine Gender** denotes males; the **Feminine**, females.

97. NOUNS DESTITUTE OF GENDER.—Many nouns are destitute of gender. Things without life are neither male nor female; hence the nouns that represent them have no gender.

98. Things without life, however, are sometimes personified,—that is, spoken to or of as persons. Thus we say, "*Murder* stalks through the land." "Here *Sorrow* sits, veiling her eyes." Fierce, vast, and sublime objects (as Anger, Time, Revenge) are personified as males, and their names become masculine. Gentle, delicate, and beautiful objects (as Hope, Evening, Plenty) are personified as females, and their names become feminine.

99. COMMON GENDER.—The gender of the words presented at the commencement of this lesson is perceived at once. It is not so, however, with every noun that has gender. Thus *neighbor* may denote either *male* or *female*.

When there is no way of determining which sex is meant, the noun is either masculine or feminine, which we express briefly by saying that it is of the *common gender*. A noun in the plural that represents both sexes, is also of the *common gender*.

100. The gender of a noun which of itself may represent either sex may be determined by some word referring to it. *He*, *his*, or *him*, shows it to be masculine; *she* or *her*, feminine. Observe the gender of the noun *neighbor* in the following examples:—

Common Gender.—Love thy *neighbor* as thyself.
" " Love your *neighbors* as yourselves.
Masculine Gend.—My *neighbor* has gone to *his* father's.
Feminine Gender.—My *neighbor* has gone to *her* father's.

What, the Feminine? 97. What nouns are generally destitute of gender? 98. How are things without life sometimes spoken to or spoken of? Give examples. What kind of objects are personified as males? What gender do their names become? What objects are personified as females? What gender do their names become? 99. When is a noun said to be of the *common gender*? What gender is a noun in the plural that represents both sexes? 100. How may the gender of a noun some-

101. Masculine nouns, and some feminines also, may be used without reference to sex. They then represent an entire class consisting of both sexes. Thus:—"The *tiger* lies in wait for his prey." "The world is full of *heroes*." "Every *passenger* must hold his own ticket." "*Geese* are long-lived birds."—Here *tiger*, *heroes*, and *passenger*, are masculine, and *geese* is feminine; yet we mean the *tigress* as well as the *tiger*, *heroines* as well as *heroes*, every *female* as well as every *male* passenger, and *ganders* as well as *geese*.

102. GENDER OF COLLECTIVE NOUNS.—A collective noun denotes a body of living individuals. These individuals may be spoken of as a whole or separately. If we say, "The audience was large," we mean *the audience taken as a whole*. If we say, "The audience were delighted," we mean *the audience taken as individuals*, *the persons in the audience*.

When a collective noun denotes a body of individuals taken as a whole, it has no gender. When it denotes individuals taken separately, it is masculine if these individuals are males, feminine if they are females, and common if both. Thus:—

No gender.—The *audience* was delighted.
Masculine.—A *committee* of gentlemen are calling for subscriptions.
Feminine.—A *committee* of ladies are calling for subscriptions.
Common.—The *audience* were delighted.

EXERCISE.

Mention the nouns, their class, person, number, and gender when they have it. [Thus:—*Sir Isaac Newton* is a complex proper noun, in the third person, singular number, masculine gender. *Philosophers* is a common noun, in the third person, plural number, common gender. *Age* is a common noun, in the third person, singular number.]

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times be determined? What words show it to be masculine? What, feminine? Illustrate this with the noun *neighbor*. 101. How may masculine nouns and some feminines be used? What do they then represent? Give examples. 102. What does a collective noun denote? How may these individuals be spoken of? Give examples. What is the gender of a collective noun when the individuals it denotes are taken as a whole? What, when they are taken separately? Give examples.

Sir Isaac Newton was among the greatest philosophers of his age.—The philosopher Diogenes lived in a tub.—The lion is the king of beasts.—Pleasure, dressed in her gay robes, whispers temptingly to young men and maidens.—Every congregation likes its own minister best.—The sewing-society appointed a committee to collect contributions from the congregation.—At Aleppo is a cat-asylum, founded by a Turk, where sick cats are provided for.—Boys and girls are our future men and women.

LESSON XXI.

MASCULINE AND FEMININE CORRELATIVES.

103. CORRELATIVE NOUNS.—Some masculine nouns have corresponding feminines: as, boy, *girl;* lion, *lioness;* man-singer, *woman-singer.*

A masculine noun and its corresponding feminine are called Correlative Nouns.

104. *Classes.*—Correlative nouns are divided into three classes:—

I. Those in which the feminine is formed by appending the suffix *ess*, *ine*, *ina*, *ix*, or *a* to the masculine, with or without change; as,

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Abbot,	abbess.	Count,	countess.
Actor,	actress.	Czar,	czarina.
Administrator,	administratrix.	Dauphin,	dauphiness.
Ambassador,	ambassadress.	Deacon,	deaconess.
Arbiter,	arbitress.	Director,	directress.
Author,	authoress.	Doctor,	doct-oress, ress.
Baron,	baroness.	Don,	donna.
Benefactor,	benefactress.	Duke,	duchess.
Conductor,	conductress.	Editor,	editress.

103. What are Correlative Nouns? Give examples. 104. Into how many classes are correlative nouns divided? What is the first class? Select from the

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Emperor,	empress.	Palsgrave,	palsgravine.
Enchanter,	enchantress.	Patron,	patroness.
Executor,	executrix.	Peer,	peeress.
God,	goddess.	Poet,	poetess.
Governor,	governess.	Priest,	priestess.
Heir,	heiress.	Prince,	princess.
Hero,	heroine.	Prior,	prioress.
Host,	hostess.	Prophet,	prophetess.
Hunter,	huntress.	Proprietor,	proprietress.
Idolater,	idolatress.	Protector,	protectress.
Infante (*title*),	infanta.	Shepherd,	shepherdess.
Instructor,	instructress.	Songster,	songstress.
Jew,	Jewess.	Sorcerer,	sorceress.
Landgrave,	landgravine.	Sultan,	sul'taness, sulta'na.
Lion,	lioness.	Tailor,	tailoress.
Margrave,	margravine.	Testator,	testatrix.
Marquis,	marchioness.	Tiger,	tigress.
Mediator,	mediatr-ix, ess.	Traitor,	traitress.
Murderer,	murderess.	Viscount,	viscountess.
Negro,	negress.	Votary,	votaress.
Ogre,	ogress.	Waiter,	waitress.

Some proper nouns are made feminine by a change of termination, or the addition of a letter or letters; as,

Augustus,	Augusta.	Francis,	Frances.	Louis,	Louis-e, a.
George,	Georgiana.	Jesse,	Jessie.	Paul,	Pauline.

II. Those in which the genders are distinguished by the use of different words; as,

Mas.	*Fem.*	*Mas.*	*Fem.*	*Mas.*	*Fem.*
Bachelor,	maid.	Brother,	sister.	Father,	mother.
Beau,	belle.	Buck,	doe.	Friar, monk,	nun.
Boy,	girl.	Bull,	cow.	Gander,	goose.
Bridegroom, Groom,	bride.	Drake,	duck.	Gentleman,	lady.
		Earl,	countess.	Hart,	roe.

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list a feminine correlative formed with each of the suffixes mentioned. How are some proper nouns made feminine? What is the feminine of *Augustus? George? Francis? Jesse? Louis? Paul?* What is the second class of correlative nouns? Give examples. What is the third class of correlative nouns? Give examples.

Mas.	*Fem.*	*Mas.*	*Fem.*	*Mas.*	*Fem.*
Horse,	mare.	Master,	mistress.	Sire,	dam.
Husband,	wife.	Master,	miss.	Son,	daughter.
King,	queen.	Mr.	Mrs.	Stag,	hind.
Lad,	lass.	Nephew,	niece.	Steer,	heifer.
Lord,	lady.	Papa,	mamma.	Uncle,	aunt.
Male,	female.	Ram, buck,	ewe.	Widower,	widow.
Man,	woman.	Sir,	madam.	Wizard,	witch.

III. Those in which words indicating the sex are prefixed to nouns of common gender; as,

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Man-singer,	woman-singer.	Cock-sparrow,	hen-sparrow.
Man-servant,	maid-servant.	He-goat,	she-goat.
Male-descendant,	female-descendant.	Buck-rabbit,	doe-rabbit.

105. Compound nouns, in their gender and the formation of their feminines, follow their leading elements; as,

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Brother-in-law,	sister-in-law.	Landlord,	landlady.
Step-father,	step-mother.	Schoolmaster,	schoolmistress.
Peacock,	peahen.	Frenchman,	Frenchwoman.

EXERCISE.

Give the feminine:—Czar; director; archduke; earl; emperor; enchanter; hunter; infante (*prince royal of Spain*); landgrave; sultan; viscount; Julius; Henry; Joseph; boy; schoolboy; grandfather; steer; lord; Englishman; master; master (a title); stag; widower; son-in-law; male-descendants; mediator; tailor; hart; step-son.

Give the masculine:—Co-heiress; negress; bride; wife; roe; grandniece; granddaughter; mother-in-law; empress; schoolmistress; Irishwoman; Moabitess; witch; songstress; executrix; female-servant; serving-woman; lass; landlady; Charlotte; Harriet; Cornelia.

Mention six masculine nouns; six feminine nouns in ess; *six nouns of common gender; six nouns that have no gender.*

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105. What is the rule for the gender of compound nouns and the formation of their feminines? Give examples.

LESSON XXII.

THE CASE OF NOUNS.

We must now consider the relations in which nouns stand to other words.

106. In every sentence there is one leading word, denoting that about which something is said. This is called the **Grammatical Subject** of the sentence.—"Morse invented the telegraph." Here *Morse* is the leading word, denoting that about which something is said, and it is therefore the grammatical subject.

107. Words may be joined to the grammatical subject, to limit or explain its meaning, or introduce some additional fact. These are called **Modifiers.**

108. The grammatical subject and its modifiers form what is called the **Logical Subject.**—"Morse, a native of Massachusetts, invented the telegraph." *Morse, a native of Massachusetts*, is the logical subject.

109. The words that remain in a sentence after the logical subject is removed, form what is called the **Predicate.**—*Invented the telegraph* is the predicate of both the sentences given above as examples.

"The telegraph was invented by Morse." Here we express the same idea, but in a different form. *Telegraph* is now the grammatical subject; *the telegraph* is the logical subject; *was invented by Morse* is the predicate.

110. The predicate of every sentence contains at least one word that affirms. This is called a **Verb.**

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106. What is meant by the Grammatical Subject of a sentence? What is the grammatical subject of the sentence *Morse invented the telegraph*? 107. What may be joined to the grammatical subject? What are such words called? 108. What is the Logical Subject? Point out the grammatical and the logical subject in the sentence *Morse, a native of Massachusetts, invented the telegraph.* 109. What is the Predicate? Select the predicate of the sentence just given. 110. What does the predicate of every sentence contain? What is this word called? What is the

That respecting which the verb affirms is called its **Subject.** The *grammatical subject* of a sentence is always the *subject* of the leading verb in the predicate.

In the example just given, the grammatical subject of the sentence, *telegraph*, is the subject of the leading verb in the predicate, *was invented.*

111. Observe the following sentences:—

Morse invented the telegraph.

The telegraph was invented by Morse.

Morse's invention of the telegraph has made his name immortal.

In these three sentences, the proper noun stands in different relations to the other words. In the first sentence, the noun *Morse* is the grammatical subject; in the second, it is the object of the preposition *by;* in the third, its form is changed to *Morse's*, and it modifies the following noun *invention*, telling *whose* the invention was. Hence we distinguish three different relations that a noun may sustain in a sentence.

112. **Case** is that property which distinguishes the relations of nouns and pronouns to other words in a sentence.

There are three cases, known as the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective.

113. The **Nominative Case** usually denotes the relation which a subject bears to its verb; as, "*David* succeeded Saul."

The nominative also denotes the relation of a noun in the predicate after a verb, referring to the same person or thing as the subject of the verb; as, "Mohammed was an *Arabian.*" "Charlemagne was crowned *emperor.*"

A noun used *independently*, in an exclamation, address, &c., is also in the nominative; as "*Heavens!* what a *sight!*" "*Plato*, thou reasonest well." "*Teas* and *groceries* for sale." "The *sun* having set, I returned."

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subject of a verb? What will the grammatical subject of a sentence always be found to be? 111. Give the three sentences to which attention is called. Show the different relations in which the proper noun stands in these sentences. 112. What is Case? Name the cases. 113. What does the Nominative Case usually denote? What other relation does the nominative denote? In what case is a noun when used independently? What is the case of *sun*, and why, in the sentence *The sun having set, I returned?* If we say, *As the sun had set, I returned*, what case is *sun*,

In this last sentence, the action is *assumed*, in stead of being *affirmed*, and *sun* is in the nominative independent. If we say, "As the sun had set, I returned," the action is affirmed, and *sun* is in the nominative case because it is the subject of the verb *had set*.

114. The **Possessive Case** denotes the relation of possession, origin, or fitness, which a modifying noun or pronoun bears to the noun that it modifies: as, *David's* father; an *eagle's* flight; *children's* shoes.

115. The **Objective Case** usually denotes the object of a verb or preposition.

The object of a verb stands in the predicate, and represents that on which the action expressed by the verb is exerted; as, "Bees make *wax*." "David succeeded *Saul*."

116. The prepositions most frequently used are *at*, *about*, *after*, *before*, *by*, *for*, *from*, *in*, *into*, *of*, *over*, *to*, *with*, *without*. A preposition always has an object, which generally follows it. Observe the objects in the following sentence, and select those which are the objects of prepositions: "Do thy duty with diligence and without fear, from love of right and in the hope of a reward hereafter."

EXERCISE.

Point out the grammatical subject of each sentence, its modifiers when it has any, the logical subject, and the predicate. Select the nouns; state their class and case.—Balboa discovered the Pacific Ocean.—Living toads are sometimes found in the middle of huge rocks.—Victoria having succeeded to the throne, the government was administered with vigor and wisdom.—Deer's horns adorned my friend's apartment.—The Indians of the West hang bears' claws about their necks.—Robert Fulton was the inventor of steamboats.—My friends—alas! I have no friends.—O Health, inestimable are thy blessings.—The purest pearl may be found in the roughest oyster.

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and why? 114. What relation does the Possessive Case denote? 115. What does the Objective Case usually denote? Where does the object of a verb stand? What does it represent? 116. Name the prepositions most frequently used. What does a preposition always have?

LESSON XXIII.

THE DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

117. DECLENSION OF NOUNS.—By the Declension of a noun is meant the process of carrying it through its several cases. The following will serve as examples:—

	Sing.	*Plu.*	*Sing.*	*Plu.*	*Sing.*	*Plu.*
Nom.	Dog,	dogs,	Sky,	skies,	Hero,	heroes,
Poss.	dog's,	dogs',	sky's,	skies',	hero's,	heroes',
Obj.	dog;	dogs.	sky;	skies.	hero;	heroes.

Nom.	Ox,	oxen,	Woman,	women,	Julius,	——
Poss.	ox's,	oxen's,	woman's,	women's,	Julius's,	——
Obj.	ox;	oxen.	woman;	women.	Julius.	——

118. RULES FOR THE FORMATION OF THE CASES.—From the above examples may be derived the following rules, which apply to compound as well as primitive nouns:—

1. The form of the noun is the same in the objective case as in the nominative.

2. The possessive singular is formed by appending an apostrophe and *s* ('s) to the nominative singular.

3. The possessive plural is formed by appending 's to the nominative plural unless it already ends in *s*, in which case the apostrophe (') alone is added.

119. When a word ends with the sound of *s* or *z*, particularly if the next word commences with an *s* sound, some form the possessive with an apostrophe alone; as, for *conscience*' sake; *Peleus*' son; *science*' self. It is best, however, to avoid both this irregular form and the repetition of the *s* sound, by substituting *of* with the objective or some equivalent construction. Thus:—for the sake *of conscience;* the son *of Peleus;* science *herself.*

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117. What is meant by the Declension of a noun? Decline *dog; sky; hero; ox; woman; Julius.* 118. In what two cases is the form of the noun the same? Is this true in both numbers? How do we form the possessive singular? The possessive plural? 119. How do some form the possessive of words ending with the sound of *s* or *z*? What is said of this irregular form?

EXERCISE.

Decline green-house; beau; cherub; child; dormouse; tomato; Louis; nephew.

Spell first the possessive singular, then the possessive plural, of axe; lock; huntsman; talisman; knight-templar; tigress; phenomenon; distaff; assembly; rabbi; valley; cuckoo; ashes.

Parse the nouns. [Thus:—*News* is a common noun, in the third person, singular number, nominative case. *Cornwallis's* is a proper noun, in the third person, singular number, masculine gender, possessive case. *Surrender* is a common noun, in the third person, singular number, objective case.] The news of Cornwallis's surrender was received by all true Americans with delight.—Umbrellas were introduced into England from China, about a hundred years ago.—Slanderers are Satan's bellows, with which he blows up strife.—The ostrich is hunted for its feathers, which form beautiful ornaments for ladies' hats and head-dresses.—Obey thy father and mother; honor the authors of thy being.—Dogs' ears are very different things from dog's-ears.

LESSON XXIV.

THE PRONOUN.—PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

120. The Pronoun.—The second part of speech is the Pronoun.

121. "Sarah asked William to lend Sarah William's book."—This sentence is very awkward. To avoid repeating the nouns *Sarah* and *William*, we make use of substitutes called Pronouns:—"Sarah asked William to lend *her his* book."

122. A **Pronoun** is a word used in stead of a noun or an expression equivalent to a noun.

123. *Classes.*—There are four classes of pronouns; Personal, Relative, Interrogative, and Adjective.

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120. What is the second part of speech? 121. Show how substitutes are used, to avoid repeating nouns. 122. What is a Pronoun? 123. How many classes of pronouns are there? Name them. What properties do all of these have? What

All of these have person, number, and case. Such as represent things with life have gender also, though in many cases it is undetermined. In parsing, give the gender of the personals only.

124. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.—A **Personal Pronoun** is one that simply represents a noun and determines its person, without introducing any other idea respecting it.

125. The personal pronouns are distinguished as Simple and Compound.

126. *Simple Personal Pronouns.*—The simple personal pronouns are,

I, first person, masculine gender if a male is denoted, feminine if a female.

Thou, second person, masculine gender if a male is denoted, feminine if a female.

He, third person, masculine gender.

She, third person, feminine gender.

It, third person, destitute of gender.

127. The simple personals are thus declined :—

	First person.		Second person.	
	Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Nom.	I,	we,	Thou,	you, ye,
Poss.	my, mine,	our, ours,	thy, thine,	your, yours,
Obj.	me;	us.	thee;	you, ye.

	Third person.					
	Sing.	*Plu.*	*Sing.*	*Plu.*	*Sing.*	*Plu.*
Nom.	He,	they,	She,	they,	It,	they,
Poss.	his,	their, / theirs,	her, / hers,	their, / theirs,	its,	their, / theirs,
Obj.	him;	them.	her;	them.	it;	them.

128. *Compound Personal Pronouns.*—The compound personals are formed of the possessive or objective case

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pronouns have gender also? 124. What is a Personal Pronoun? 125. How are the personal pronouns distinguished? 126. Mention the simple personal pronouns, and the person and gender of each. 127. Decline the simple personals. 128. Of what

of the simple personals and the word *self*. They are not found in the possessive case, and are alike in the nominative and the objective. The compound personals are,

Myself, plu. *ourselves*, *ourself*, first person, masculine if a male is denoted, feminine if a female.

Thyself, plu. *yourselves*, *yourself*, second person, masculine if a male is denoted, feminine if a female.

Himself, plu. *themselves*, third person, mas. gender.

Herself, plu. *themselves*, third person, fem. gender.

Itself, plu. *themselves*, third person, no gender.

129. *Forms of the Possessive.*—Most of the simple personal pronouns have two forms in the possessive case. The shorter form is used when the modified noun follows; the longer, when it is understood. We say, "It is *my* hat;" but, "This hat is *mine*." "Here are the hats; *mine* [that is, *my hat*] is black." "It is *thine* [*thy part*] to command, *mine* [*my part*] to obey."

130. The possessive case of the simple personals, as well as of nouns, is frequently used with the preposition *of*, to denote possession simply. Thus: "This heart *of mine* will break." "Sing to the Lord, all ye saints *of His*." The meaning here is not *this heart of my hearts*, as some explain such expressions, for I have but one heart; nor *all ye saints of His saints*, for *all* denotes the whole and not a part. It is rather the noun *possessing*, *owning*, that is understood as the object of the preposition *of*—*of my*, *His*, *possessing*.

131. *Mine* and *thine* were formerly preferred to *my* and *thy*, before words commencing with a vowel sound; as, *mine* aim, *thine* honor. They are still sometimes so used in poetry; thus Byron, "*thine* azure brow."

132. *Plural for Singular.*—The personal pronouns of the first and the second person are often used in the plural though but one person is denoted. A king would say, "*We* publish this *our* decree," in stead of "*I* publish this *my* decree."

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are the compound personals formed? In what case are they not found? What cases are alike? Mention the compound personals, and their person and gender. Decline each. 129. How many forms have most of the simple personals in the possessive case? What distinction is observed in their use? 130. What preposition is frequently used with the possessive case of the simple personals? To denote what? Give examples. 131. Before what words were *mine* and *thine* formerly preferred? Where are they still sometimes so used? 132. When is *ourself*

So an editor writes, "*We* think *ourself* safe in predicting this," when he means, "*I* think *myself* safe." The former is the more modest form of expression, and gives more weight to what he says. *Ourself* is a plural form of the first compound personal pronoun, used when one person is denoted and only then.

In common discourse, we constantly use the plural in addressing a single person. We do not say, "Hast *thou* hurt *thyself?*" but, "Have *you* hurt *yourself?*" *Yourself* is a plural form of the second compound personal pronoun, used when one person is denoted and only then. The pronoun of the second person is now used in the singular only in addressing the Almighty, in poetical style, and by the Friends, or Quakers, in common conversation.

133. *Ye.*—*Ye* is now rarely used, except as a nominative in poetry or solemn style.

134. *It.*—*It* is sometimes used indefinitely, without reference to any particular antecedent; as, "*It* snows." "Is *it* well with thee?"

It formerly lacked the possessive case. Hence, in our version of the Bible, *its* nowhere occurs, but *his* or *her* is used in its place. We read, "If the salt have lost *his* savor," "the tree of life which yielded *her* fruit".

It, though destitute of gender, is sometimes applied to living things; as, "That child will hurt *its* voice." "The crocodile never gives up *its* prey.'

EXERCISE.

Mention first the simple and then the compound personal pronoun of the first person, singular number, objective case; of the second, plural, possessive; of the third, singular, masculine, nominative; of the second, singular, objective; of the third, singular, feminine, objective; of the first, plural, possessive; of the third, plural, nominative; of the first, singular, nominative; of the second, singular, nominative; of the third, singular, objective (no gender).

Correct ours'; theirs'; it's; your's; his'n; hern; ourn; yourn; hisself; theirselves; itsself; theirn.

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used? How do we constantly use the plural in common discourse? When is *yourself* used? When alone is the pronoun of the second person now used in the singular? 133. What is said of *ye*? 134. How is *it* sometimes used? What is used instead of *its* in our version of the Bible? Give examples. Why is not *its* found? To what is *it* sometimes applied? Give examples.

LESSON XXV.

RULES FOR NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

135.—In parsing, rules must be given for the case of nouns and pronouns. The same rules, for the most part, apply to both. We include both under the general name of *Substantive.*

136. RULE I.—A substantive that is the subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

The subject generally precedes its verb; as, "*Thou lovest.*" In some sentences, however, the verb precedes its subject; as, "*Lovest thou* me?" "Here *is* a *pin.*" "Then *cometh* the *Judgment.*"

137. RULE II.—A substantive used independently is in the nominative case.

138. A noun or pronoun is used independently,

1. When it represents that of which some action or state is assumed instead of being affirmed; as, "*Napoleon* having charged, the battle was decided." "*She* being well, all is well."

2. When it represents an object addressed; as, "O *Robert*, do not go." "*Friends*, *countrymen*, and *lovers*, lend me your ears."

3. In exclamations; as, "*Heavens!* what a *sight!*" "Ah! wretched *we!*"

4. When there is a sudden break in the construction, and a new subject or object is introduced; as, "The *bride*—what can I say of her?"

139. RULE III.—A substantive that modifies a noun denoting a different person or thing, by implying possession, origin, or fitness, is in the possessive case: as, *Saul's* journey; *Charles's* wain; *my* hand; *his* promises.

140. RULE IV.—A substantive that is the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case: as, Love *God;* help *us;* the horrors of *war;* for *them.*

141. RULE V.—A modifying substantive, denoting

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135. For what must rules be given in parsing? What do we mean by a Substantive? 136. Recite Rule I. What is the position of the subject as regards its verb? 137. Recite Rule II. 138. When is a noun or pronoun used independently? 139. Recite Rule III. 140. Recite Rule IV. 141. Recite Rule V. 142. Recite

time, direction, extent, quantity, or value, often stands in the objective case without a preposition; as, "Last *week*, he went *west*." "It was an *inch* wide, weighed an *ounce*, and cost me a *shilling*."

142. RULE VI.—One substantive joined to another denoting the same person or thing, is in the same case.

"The house of Washington, the father of his country;" *father*, joined to *Washington* and denoting the same person, is in the same case as *Washington*,—the objective. "Thou hypocrite;" *hypocrite*, joined to *thou* and denoting the same person, is in the same case,—the nominative. So, I *myself*; ye *renegades*; Constantine the *emperor*.

143. A substantive thus used is said to be *in apposition with* the one to which it is joined. It explains the latter, or adds to its meaning.

Observe that there is no apposition when one substantive stands in the logical subject, and the other in the predicate; as, "Rome is a city." The next rule treats of this construction.

144. RULE VII.—A verb that has no object takes the same case after as before it, when both words refer to the same person or thing.

"I know that Charles is a scholar." *Charles*, the subject of the verb *is*, is in the nominative case; therefore *scholar*, after the verb, is also in the nominative.—"I know Charles to be a scholar." *Charles*, being the object of the verb *know*, is in the objective; therefore *scholar*, after the verb *to be*, is also in the objective.

This rule applies, even when the natural order of the words is changed.—"Who are they?" "Are you a friend?" "Lucifer he was called." *They*. *you*, and *he*, are the subjects in the nominative case; *who*, *friend*, and *Lucifer*, are in the nominative after the verbs.

EXERCISE.

Tell the case of each noun and personal pronoun, and under which of the above rules it falls:—Figures, the characters by which we denote numbers, were introduced into Europe in the eleventh

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Rule VI. Give examples. 143. What is said of a substantive thus joined to another? What does the substantive in apposition do? Under what circumstances is there no apposition? 144. Recite Rule VII. Does this rule apply if the natural order of the words is changed? Give examples.

century.—"Know thyself," was a favorite maxim of Bion's.—Isocrates was ninety-four years old when he wrote his Panathenäicus, a eulogy on Athens.—The sun having set, your brother betook himself home; mine stayed all night.—A horse—a horse—my kingdom for a horse!—Twenty-five miles from New York, the Hudson is a league in width.

LESSON XXVI.

PARSING FORMS FOR NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

145. Parse nouns and personal pronouns, and apply the rules given above, according to the following forms:—

Thou hast, O friend, a father's heart.

A sentence: grammatical subject, *thou;* logical subject, *thou, O friend;* predicate, *hast a father's heart.*

Thou is a simple personal pronoun, in the second person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, the subject of the verb *hast:*—*Rule*, A substantive that is the subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

Friend is a common noun, in the second person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative independent:—*Rule*, A substantive used independently is in the nominative case.

Father's is a common noun, in the third person, singular number, masculine gender, possessive case, and modifies the noun *heart:*—*Rule*, A substantive that modifies a noun denoting a different person or thing, by implying possession, origin, or fitness, is in the possessive case.

Heart is a common noun, in the third person, singular number, objective case, the object of the verb *hast:*—*Rule*, A substantive that is the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case.

Note.—The word *father's* shows that in this sentence *thou* and *friend* denote males; therefore we call them masculine. Had the sentence been, "Thou hast, O friend, a merciful heart," there would have been no way of determining the sex, and we should have parsed *thou* and *friend* as of common gender.

Fifty years ago, Fielding the novelist was a great favorite.

A sentence: grammatical subject, *Fielding;* logical subject, *Fielding, the novelist;* predicate, *was a great favorite fifty years ago.*

Years is a common noun, in the third person, plural number, objective case, denoting time:—*Rule*, A modifying substantive denoting time, direction, extent, quantity, or value, often stands in the objective case without a preposition.

Fielding is a proper noun, in the third person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, the subject of the verb *was*:—*Rule*, A substantive that is the subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

Novelist is a common noun, in the third person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, in apposition with *Fielding*:—*Rule*, One substantive joined to another denoting the same person or thing, is in the same case.

Favorite is a common noun, in the third person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case after the verb *was*:—*Rule*, A verb that has no object takes the same case after as before it, when both words refer to the same person or thing.

These bodies of ours will decay.—Time itself shall be no more.

Ours is a simple personal pronoun, in the first person, plural number, common gender, possessive case, and modifies the noun *possessing* understood:—*Rule*, A substantive that modifies a noun denoting a different person or thing, by implying possession, origin, or fitness, is in the possessive case.

Itself is a compound personal pronoun, in the third person, singular number, nominative case, in apposition with *time*:—*Rule*, One substantive joined to another denoting the same person or thing, is in the same case.

EXERCISE.

Treat the sentences, and parse the nouns and personal pronouns, according to the above models:—France contains immense tracts of land in forests.—"Others * may submit to Fate," said Cæsar; "be it mine to conquer her."—The tree is known † by his fruit.—In the scenery of Switzerland, Nature has outdone herself.—Mary, that child of yours, has cried itself asleep.—Scipio having been

* A sentence: grammatical subject, *Cæsar;* logical subject, *Cæsar;* predicate, *said, "others may submit to Fate; be it mine to conquer her."*

† A verb may consist of several words. *Is known* is the verb in this sentence; *has outdone*, in the next.

sent into Africa, Hannibal had to follow him thither.—What a spectacle presented itself to our eyes!—You yourself have said you were my friend.

LESSON XXVII.

SIMPLE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

146. A **Relative Pronoun** is one used to connect parts of a sentence, without change of form for the different persons and numbers.

The relatives are so called because they *relate* to some word or words in the same sentence, usually going before, and therefore known as the Antecedent.

147. The relative pronouns are distinguished as Simple and Compound.

148. SIMPLE RELATIVES.—The Simple Relative Pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, *as*, and *what*.

149. *Who* is applied to persons, and animals and things personified; as, "Mechanics, *who* work hard, enjoy a day of rest." "A butterfly, *who* was flitting past, took up the conversation." "Hope, *who* whispers fine promises, often deceives us."

Observe in these examples, as well as those given below, that the relative connects parts of a sentence. In the first example, it connects *who work hard* with *mechanics enjoy a day of rest.* What does it connect in the second example? What, in the third?

150. *Which* is applied to animals and things; as, "The alligator, *which* resembles the crocodile, is sometimes eighteen feet long." "Reason, *which* is the greatest of divine gifts, belongs to man alone."

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146. What is a Relative Pronoun? Why are the Relatives so called? 147. How are the relative pronouns divided? 148. Mention the simple relatives. 149. To what is *who* applied? What is to be observed in the examples of relatives? 150. To what is *which* applied? To what was *which* formerly applied? Where do

Which was formerly applied to persons, as well as *who*. It is frequently so used in the Bible; as, "Our Father, *which* art in Heaven." This usage is no longer admissible.

151. *That* is applied to persons, animals, and things, and implies a closer connection with the antecedent than *who* or *which;* as, "Mechanics *that* work hard, enjoy a day of rest." "A butterfly *that* was flitting past, took up the conversation." "Every day *that* passes, has its lessons."

That is not always a relative. When it is, *who*, *which*, or *whom*, used in its place, will make sense. Thus, in the examples just given, Mechanics *who* work hard, A butterfly *who* was flitting past, Every day *which* passes.

152. *As* is applied to persons, animals, and things, after *such*, *same*, *as many*, *so many*, *as much*, and *so much;* as, "Such *as* [equivalent to *those who*] are virtuous, are happy." "You wear the same kind of hat *as* [equivalent to *that*] I wear." "I have as many horses *as* you." "So many of us *as* were baptized." "He gave as much *as* he could afford."

As is a relative, only when used in such expressions as the above.

153. *What* is applied to things, and is equivalent to antecedent and relative; as, "I have *what* [*that which*] I desired."

154. *Declension.*—The plural of the simple relatives is like the singular. They are thus declined:—

	S. & P.	*S. & P.*	*S. & P.*	*S. & P.*	*S. & P.*
Nom.	Who,	Which,	That,	As,	What,
Poss.	whose,	whose,	——	——	——
Obj.	whom.	which.	that.	as.	what.

we frequently find it so used? 151. To what is *that* applied? What degree of connection does it indicate? When is *that* a relative? 152. To what is *as* applied? After what expressions is it used? 153. To what is *what* applied? To what is it equivalent? 154. Decline the simple relatives. Which of them do not change?

155. *Position of the Antecedent.*—The antecedent generally precedes the relative; as, "*He who* slanders me is my foe." Sometimes the order is changed, and the relative stands first; as, "*Who* slanders me, *he* is my foe."

156. The antecedent is sometimes understood. "Who takes my life, but rids me of a load;" here *he* is understood, as the antecedent of *who*.

EXERCISE.

Correct the relatives, and give reasons for the changes made. Mention the antecedent of each relative. Parse the nouns and the personal pronouns:—The dog *who* barks seldom bites.—People *what* live in glass houses should not throw stones.—The men and horses *whom* I saw, were a mile off.—The men and women *which* I saw were foreigners.—Time, *which* has mowed down myriads with his scythe, will lay me low also.—Such parents *which* have their children's good at heart, will require them to obey.—After his defeat, Napoleon was never the same *which* he was before.—They have *that* they desired.

LESSON XXVIII.

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

157. The Compound Relative pronouns are,

Whoever, *whosoever*, *whoso*, applied only to persons.

Whichever, *whichsoever*, applied to persons, animals, and things.

Whatever, *whatsoever*, *whatso*, applied only to things.

Whoso and *whatso* are now rarely used.

155. What is the position of the antecedent? 156. What do we sometimes find with respect to the antecedent?

157. Mention the compound relatives, and tell to what each is applied. Which

158. FORCE.—A compound relative is generally equivalent to an antecedent and a simple relative.

Examples.—"*Whoever* [that is, *any one that*] has visited France, knows this." "Take *whichever* [*either that*] you choose." "*Whatever* [*every thing that*] is, is right."

159. Since an antecedent is implied in the compound relatives, no antecedent should be used before them. For emphasis, however, one is sometimes introduced after them. We read in the Bible, "Whatsoever he saith unto you, do *it*." Were the order changed, *it* would have to be omitted:—"Do whatsoever he saith unto you."

160. DECLENSION.—*Whoever* and *whosoever* are thus declined:—

Sing. and Plural.	*Sing. and Plural.*
Nom. Whoever,	Whosoever,
Poss. whosever,	whosesoever,
Obj. whomever.	whomsoever.

Whoso occurs only in the nominative.

The other compound relatives do not change, and are wanting in the possessive case.

161. PARSING OF RELATIVES.—In parsing *who*, *which*, *that*, or *as*, two rules must be given: one for its person and number, which are always the same as its antecedent's; and another for its case, which is independent of its antecedent's.

162. The compound relatives are sometimes so used as not to imply an antecedent; as, "Whatever I do, I can not please you." Here *whatever* is not equivalent to *any thing that*. In such cases they are parsed like the personals, and one rule suffices.

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are now rarely used? 158. To what is a compound relative generally equivalent. Illustrate this. 159. Under what circumstances may an antecedent be used with a compound relative? Give an example from the Bible. 160. Decline *whoever*. Decline *whosoever*. In what case alone is *whoso* found? What is said of the other compound relatives? 161. What directions are given for parsing *who*, *which*, *that*, and *as*? 162. How are the compound relatives sometimes used? In such cases, how are they parsed? What is generally implied in the compound relatives and

Generally, however, the compound relatives and the simple relative *what* imply an antecedent in themselves. They then represent two cases, one as antecedent and the other as relative; and two rules are necessary, unless both cases fall under the same rule.

Thus:—"I will buy what is needed." As antecedent, *what* is in the objective case, the object of the verb *will buy;* as relative, it is in the nominative, the subject of the verb *is needed.* Two rules are therefore necessary. "They know not what they do." As antecedent, *what* is in the objective, the object of the verb *know;* as relative, it is objective also, the object of the verb *do.* Here one rule will suffice.

163. *Whoever* and *whosoever*, like the other compound relatives, are generally equivalent to antecedent and relative, and therefore represent two cases. Their form, however, changes in the different cases; and, as they can appear in but one form, they take that which corresponds with their case as *relatives.* Thus:—"A reward will be given to *whoever* [*any one who*] shall arrest the criminal." As antecedent, *whoever* is in the objective case, the object of the preposition *to;* as relative, it is in the nominative, the subject of the verb *shall arrest.* Its case as *relative* determines its form, and it is therefore put in the nominative.

164. RULE VIII.—A relative agrees with its antecedent in person and number.

165. MODELS.—*Pope, who translated Homer, was one of the greatest geniuses that adorned Queen Anne's reign.*

Who is a simple relative pronoun, and has *Pope* for its antecedent, with which it agrees in the third person, singular number—*Rule*, A relative agrees with its antecedent in person and number; in the nominative case, the subject of the verb *translated*—*Rule*, A substantive that is the subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

That is a simple relative pronoun, and has *geniuses* for its antecedent, with which it agrees in the third person, plural number—*Rule*, A relative agrees, &c.; in the nominative case, the subject of the verb *adorned*—*Rule*, A substantive that is the subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

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what? How many rules are then necessary? Illustrate this. 163. To what are *whoever* and *whosoever* generally equivalent? As they have different forms in the different cases, which form do they take? Illustrate this. 164. Recite Rule VIII. 165. Learn the parsing forms.

As many as give ear to what I say, shall not repent thereof.

As (after *many*) is a simple relative pronoun, and has *persons* understood for its antecedent, with which it agrees in the third person, plural number—*Rule*, A relative agrees, &c.; in the nominative case, the subject of the verb *give*—*Rule*, A substantive that is the subject, &c.

What is a simple relative pronoun, equivalent to antecedent and relative; in the third person, singular number; as antecedent, in the objective case, the object of the preposition *to;* as relative, in the objective case, the object of the verb *say*:—*Rule*, A substantive that is the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case.

He bids whoever is athirst come.

Whoever is a compound relative pronoun, equivalent to antecedent and relative, in the third person, singular number; as antecedent, in the objective case, the object of the verb *bids*—*Rule*, A substantive that is the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case; as relative, in the nominative case (and therefore it has the nominative form), the subject of the verb *is*—*Rule*, A substantive that is the subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

Whatsoever he saith unto you, do it.

Whatsoever is a compound relative pronoun, equivalent to antecedent and relative, in the third person, singular number; as antecedent, in the nominative independent—*Rule*, A substantive used independently is in the nominative case; as relative, in the objective case, the object of the verb *saith*—*Rule*, A substantive that is the object of a verb, &c.

Whosever lot it is to fall, we'll murmur not.

Whosever is a compound relative, in the third person, singular number, possessive case, and modifies the noun *lot*:—*Rule*, A substantive that modifies a noun denoting a different person or thing, by implying possession, origin, or fitness, is in the possessive case.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns, and the personal and relative pronouns:—Queen Anne, whose husband was a Dane, was the last of the Stuarts that reigned in England.—Whoever wins, may laugh.—Few that live in palaces know what poor men suffer.—You yourself, who blame me so much, have the same faults.—I who speak,

and thou who hearest, will soon be in the grave.—Who calls me happy, little does he know.—Whichever I select, I fear she will blame me.

LESSON XXIX.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

166. An **Interrogative Pronoun** is one used for asking a question, in answering a question indefinitely, and in similar indefinite expressions; as, *who*, *which*, and *what* in the following sentences:—

Questions.—*Who* did it? *Which* was it? *What* is truth?
Indefinite Answers.—I know not *who* did it, *which* it was, *what* truth is.
Indef. Expressions.—Find out *who* did it, *which* it was, *what* truth is.

167. The interrogative pronouns are,

Who, applied only to persons. "*Who* is there?"

Which, applied to persons, animals, and things. "*Which* of you?" "*Which* of the cats?" "*Which* of the tables?"

What, applied only to things. "*What* do I see?"

168. *Whether* was formerly applied to persons and things as an interrogative pronoun; as "*Whether* is greater, the gold or the temple that sanctifieth the gold?" It is no longer used in this sense.

169. The interrogatives are declined like the corresponding relatives, § 154.

170. The interrogatives and relatives must not be confounded. Observe, 1. That the introduction of an antecedent converts an interrogative into a relative. 2. That *what* is not an interrogative, but a relative, when equivalent to *that which*. Thus:—

Interrogatives.—*Who* said so? Do you know *who* said so? I can not remember *who* said so. I know *what* [not equivalent to *that which*] it is.

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166. What is an Interrogative Pronoun? Give examples. 167. Name the interrogatives, and tell to what each is applied. 168. What other word was formerly used as an interrogative pronoun? 169. Decline the interrogatives. 170. From what must the interrogatives be distinguished? What effect has the introduction

Relatives.—The person *who* said so is here. Do you know the man *who* said so? I can not respect those *who* said so. I said *what* [*that which*] you told me.

171. PARSING.—The interrogative pronouns are always in the third person. In parsing, mention their person, number, case, and the rule that applies.

What is that?—Whose books are those? Yours?

What is an interrogative pronoun, in the third person, singular number, nominative case after the verb *is*:—*Rule*, A verb that has no object takes the same case after as before it, when both words refer to the same person or thing.

Whose is an interrogative pronoun, in the third person, singular number, possessive case, and modifies the noun *books*:—*Rule*, A substantive that modifies a noun denoting a different person or thing, by implying possession, origin, or fitness, is in the possessive case.

Yours is a personal pronoun, in the second person, singular number, common gender, possessive case, and modifies *books* understood (*yours* being here equivalent to *are they your books?*):—*Rule*, A substantive that modifies a noun denoting a different person or thing, &c.

172. To parse this last word, we have to supply what is understood. So, when a question is answered with a single word. "Whom did Madison succeed? Jefferson." That is, *he succeeded Jefferson; Jefferson* is in the objective case, the object of the verb *succeeded* understood.—"Who succeeded Jefferson? Madison." That is, *Madison succeeded him; Madison* is in the nominative case, the subject of the verb *succeeded* understood.—In such constructions, when you are in doubt as to the case, supply the words understood.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns, and the personal, relative, and interrogative pronouns:—Whom did Napoleon marry? Josephine and Maria Louisa.—Which is the house? I forget which it is.—What is a noun? A word used as a name.—Who were the inventors of printing? Gutenberg, Schoeffer, and Faust.—To whom did Columbus first apply for aid? To the Spanish? No; the Genoese.—I

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of an antecedent? When is *what* not an interrogative? Give examples. 171. In what person are the interrogative pronouns? In parsing them, what must be mentioned? Learn the parsing forms. 172. What must be done in parsing, when a question is asked or answered with a single word? Give examples.

know what you saw.—Whose clothes are these? James's and mine.

Make two sentences with simple personal pronouns for subjects; two with interrogatives for subjects; two containing simple relatives in the possessive case; two containing compound relatives in the objective; two containing compound personals in the objective.

LESSON XXX.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

173. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.—All pronouns not included in the classes already named are called **Adjective Pronouns.** They are divided into the following classes:—

1. **Demonstratives,** which point out with precision the objects to which they refer:—*This, that, former, latter, both, same.*

2. **Distributives,** which represent objects as taken separately:—*Each, every, either, neither.*

3. **Indefinites,** which refer to objects generally, without specifying any in particular:—*One, none, other, another, some, all, any, such.*

174. *Caution.*—It is only when used *in stead of* nouns or equivalent expressions that these words are adjective pronouns. When used *with* nouns, they are adjectives.

"David and Jonathan loved each other." *Each* and *other* are here used in stead of nouns, and are adjective pronouns.—"Each day brings other duties." *Each* and *other* are here used with nouns, and are therefore adjectives.

175. *Declension.*—*This, that, one,* and *other,* are thus declined:—

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173. What class of pronouns remains to be treated? How are adjective pronouns subdivided? Define Demonstratives; Distributives; Indefinites. 174. When are these words adjective pronouns? When used with nouns, what part of speech are they? Illustrate this. 175. Decline *this; that; one; other; another.* What is

	S.	*P.*	*S.*	*P.*	*S.*	*P.*	*S.*	*P.*
N.	This,	these,	That,	those,	One,	ones,	Other,	others,
P.	——	——	——	——	one's,	ones',	other's,	others',
O.	this;	these.	that;	those.	one;	ones.	other;	others.

Another is declined in the singular like *other*, but has no plural. The rest of the adjective pronouns are indeclinable (that is, do not change), and are never used in the possessive.

176. *Number.—Each*, *every*, *either*, and *neither*, are always singular. *Both* is always plural. *Former*, *latter*, *same*, *none*, *some*, *all*, *any*, and *such*, are used in both numbers without change of form. Their number is determined by that of the word for which they stand.

177. *Remarks.—That* and *this*, *former* and *latter*, are frequently used to distinguish two objects mentioned immediately before. Thus used, *that* and *former* refer to the more remote, or the first-mentioned; *this* and *latter*, to the nearer, or last-mentioned. Thus:—"Mercantile and professional life both have their advantages: *this* [or *the latter*, that is, *professional life*] opens the way to fame; *that* [or *the former*, that is, *mercantile life*] leads to an honorable competence."

178. Some assign a possessive case to *former* and *latter*; "The *former's* victory counterbalanced the *latter's* defeat." These possessives are not authorized. Correct thus:—"The victory *of the former* counterbalanced the defeat *of the latter*."

179. Parsing.—*They killed one another.—Parsimony and prodigality should both be avoided.*

One is an adjective pronoun, in the third person, singular number, nominative case, in apposition with *they*:—*Rule*, One substantive joined to another denoting the same person or thing, is in the same case.

Another is an adjective pronoun, in the third person, singular number, objective case, the object of the verb *killed*:—*Rule*, The object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case.

Both is an adjective pronoun, in the third person, plural number, nominative case, in apposition with *parsimony* and *prodigality*:—*Rule*,

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said of the rest of the adjective pronouns? 176. Which of the adjective pronouns are always singular? Which is always plural? Which are used in both numbers without change of form? How is their number determined? 177. For what are *that* and *this*, *former* and *latter*, often used? When so used, to what do *that* and *former* refer? To what do *this* and *latter* refer? 178. What case of *former* and *latter* is condemned as unauthorized? 179. Learn the parsing forms.

One substantive joined to another denoting the same person or thing, is in the same case.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns and pronouns:—Such is the case.—They will perish, each and every of them.—Here are three shoes, a new one and two old ones.—Do either you choose. I will do neither.—Give some to me. I have not any. I have none to spare.—She can not mean that.—These are beautiful, those amiable; the former we admire, the latter we love.—Listen to others' woes.—He executed a deed to Richard Roe, and the same was duly recorded.

Supply pronouns of the classes indicated:—I (*compound personal*) also am a man.—Love all men, do harm to (*adjective pronoun*).—(*Interrogative*) does not love (*personal*) country?—(*Compound relative*) I may do, I will not desert (*personal*) friends.—(*Adjective pronoun*) who grieve, shall find comfort for (*personal*) sorrows.—Such (*relative*) do good, shall have their reward.

LESSON XXXI.

THE ARTICLE.

180. The Article.—The third part of speech is the Article.

The apple; an apple. The book; a book.

When we say *the apple*, *the book*, we refer to some particular apple and book. When we say *an apple*, *a book*, we mean one of each, but no particular one. This difference of meaning results from the use of the words *the* and *an* or *a* before the nouns. These two words (for *an* and *a* are but different forms of the same word) are called Articles.

181. The **Articles** are the words **the** and **an** or **a**, used before other words to limit their meaning.

182. The articles are generally used before nouns with or without

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180. What is the third part of speech? What do we mean when we say *the apple, the book?* When we say *an apple, a book?* From what does this difference of meaning result? 181. What are the Articles? 182. Before what are the arti-

a word or words between; as, the rose, a rose, the wild rose, an insignificant rose, a red and white rose. In all these expressions, the article limits the meaning of the noun *rose*, and is said *to relate* to it.

183. An article may also relate to,

A pronoun; as, the *former*, the *latter*, the *one*, the *other*.

An adjective; as, "The *softer* it is, the *better*."

An adverb; as, "The *more* we study, the *better* we like to study."

184. *Cautions.*—Do not confound the article *an* with the conjunction *an*, used by old writers for *if;* as, "*An* it be a long part, I can't remember it."

Do not confound the article *a* with the preposition *a*, used in such expressions as *to go* a *hunting*, *to burst out* a *laughing*, &c.

185. *Classification and Use.*—**The** is called the Definite Article. It is used with nouns in both numbers, and generally denotes a particular object or objects.

An, or **a**, is called the Indefinite Article. It is used with nouns in the singular only, and denotes one object but no particular one.

186. Nouns taken in their widest sense are often used without either article; as, "*Day* is the time for work; *night*, for repose."

187. The definite article used with the names of animals, plants, trees, &c., in the singular, may denote either one of the kind or the whole group. I may say, "The dahlia you gave me is dead;"—meaning a particular plant: or, "The dahlia is a native of Mexico;"—meaning the whole group of plants so called.

188. *Use of* an *and* a.—The indefinite article has two forms, *an* and *a*.

189. *An* is used before words commencing with a vowel sound; as, an ant, an earl, an idol, an oak, an umbrella, an heir, an honor.

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ples generally used? Give examples. 183. To what besides a noun may an article relate? 184. With what must the article *an* not be confounded? With what must the article *a* not be confounded? 185. What is *the* called? With what is it used? What does it generally denote? What is *an* or *a* called? With what is it used? What does it denote? 186. When are nouns used without either article? 187. What may *the*, used before the names of animals, &c., in the singular, denote? 188. Mention the forms of the indefinite article. 189. Where must *an* be used? Show the difference between commencing with a vowel and commencing with a

Observe that a word may commence with a consonant and yet with a vowel sound; as in the last two examples, in which *h* is silent.

190. *A* is used before words commencing with a consonant sound; as, a bird, a cat, a sea, a hen, a wonder, many a one, a yew, a ewe, a unit, a eulogy, a humor.

W and *y*, beginning words, are consonants. *A* must therefore be used before words commencing with these letters or their sound, as in the last seven examples.

Words beginning with *h* sounded, take *a*. Those beginning with *h* silent, may commence with a vowel sound and take *an*, as *an herb;* or with a consonant sound and take *a*, as *a humor*. Either *an* or *a* may be used before words commencing with *h* that are not accented on the first syllable; as, *an* histo'rian or *a* histo'rian.

191. The articles have neither person, number, gender, nor case.

192. RULE IX.—An article relates to the word whose meaning it limits.

193. PARSING.—*The son of a king.*

The is the definite article, and relates to *son*:—*Rule*, An article relates to the word whose meaning it limits.

A is the indefinite article, and relates to *king*:—*Rule*, An article, &c.

EXERCISE.

Supply the proper indefinite article, according to §§ 189, 190. *Then parse the nouns, pronouns, and articles*:—We waited — hour for the wagon, which at last came, bringing — ham, — basket of eggs, — half-barrel of cider, and — well-cooked joint of beef. — ewe, — ox, — year-old colt, and — young calf, were feeding in — worn-out field. — humorous account of — European tour made by — Yankee in — one-horse wagon, has had — wide circulation. — heiress with such — immense fortune is not met with every day. — honorable man and — honest man are two different things.

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vowel sound. 190. Where is *a* used? Which form must be used before words beginning with *w* and *y*? Which form, before words beginning with *h*? Which form, before words beginning with *h*, not accented on the first syllable? 191. What properties do not belong to the articles? 192. Recite Rule IX. 193. Learn the parsing form.

LESSON XXXII.

ADJECTIVES AND THEIR CLASSES.

194. The Adjective.—The fourth part of speech is the Adjective.

"Those four noisy English boys are here."

The words *those*, *four*, *noisy*, and *English*, are here all joined to the noun *boys*. *Those* and *English* tell which boys are meant; *four* tells how many boys; *noisy* tells what kind of boys. Words like these, joined to a noun or pronoun, to qualify or limit its meaning, are called Adjectives.

195. An **Adjective** is a word used to qualify or limit the meaning of a substantive; as, *sweet* roses, *happy* thou.

196. The substantive to which an adjective relates, is often understood; as when we speak of *the good*, *the living*, meaning *good men*, *living persons*. So, "There are worse things than [for a *man*] to be *poor*."

197. A word generally used as a noun becomes an adjective when it is joined to a substantive to qualify or limit its meaning; as, an *iron* mask, a *rose* color, a *night* attack, *London* porter.

198. *Classes.*—Adjectives may be divided into four classes; Proper, Numeral, Pronominal, and Common.

199. A **Proper Adjective** is one derived from a proper noun, or identical with a proper noun in form; as, a *Roman* nose, *Ciceronian* eloquence, *Byron* collars, a *Philadelphia* lawyer.

200. *Caution.*—Proper Adjectives must be distinguished from proper nouns having the same form. Observe the difference in the following examples:—

Proper Adjectives.—*Irish* melodies; *Welsh* flannel; *Russian* isinglass.

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194. What is the fourth part of speech? In the sentence *Those four noisy English boys are here*, what words are joined to the noun *boys*? What do they respectively tell? What are words like these, joined to a noun or pronoun, called? 195. What is an Adjective? 196. Give examples to show that an adjective may relate to a substantive understood. 197. When does a word generally used as a noun become an adjective? 198. Into how many classes may adjectives be divided? Name them. 199. What is a Proper Adjective? 200. From what must proper

Proper Nouns.—Can you speak *Irish?* The *Welsh* are a thrifty people. A *Russian;* the *Russians;* a *Russian's* revenge.—A plural or possessive form, as in the last two examples, indicates a noun.

201. A **Numeral Adjective** is one that denotes a definite number; as, *three, third, three-fold.*

202. The Numeral Adjectives are distinguished as Cardinals, Ordinals, and Multiplicatives.

The Cardinals answer the question *how many;* as, *one, two, three, four, thirteen, twenty-one, two hundred.*

The Ordinals answer the question *which in order;* as, *first, second, third, fourth, thirteenth, twenty-first, two-hundredth.*

The Multiplicatives answer the question *how many fold;* as, *single, double* or *two-fold, triple* or *three-fold, quadruple* or *four-fold, twenty-fold, hundred-fold.*

203. *Caution.*—The numerals must be distinguished from nouns having the same form, as used in the following sentences:—"Here is a *ten* (meaning a *ten-dollar bill*)." "They came by *fifties* and *hundreds.*" "Divide *fifty-three* by one *fourth.*" "It produced a *hundred-fold.*"

204. The **Pronominal Adjectives** are words identical in form with certain pronouns, but used *with* nouns and not *in stead of* them.

The pronominal adjectives are *which, what, whichever, whichsoever, whatever, whatsoever, this, that, these, those, former, latter, both, same, each, every, either, neither, one, none, other, another, some, all, any, such.*

The adjective pronouns all become pronominal adjectives, when used with their nouns. Thus:—*This* man, *that* field, *both* eyes, the *same* party, *other* countries, *such* persons. Silver and gold have I *none.* *Which* thing is an allegory. *What* thoughts are these?

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adjectives be distinguished? Give examples showing the difference. What does a plural or possessive form indicate? 201. What is a Numeral Adjective? 202. What three classes are embraced under Numerals? What question do the Cardinals answer? The Ordinals? The Multiplicatives? 203. From what must the numerals be distinguished? 204. What are the Pronominal Adjectives? Name the pronominals. Under what circumstances do all the adjective pronouns become

205. The **Common Adjectives** are all those not embraced in the above classes. A common adjective may express,

1. Quality; as, *wicked*, *handsome*, *idle*, *red-hot*, *ever-to-be-remembered*.
2. Quantity; as, *much* labor, money *enough*, a *whole* month.
3. Material; as, a *gold* crown, a *golden* crown, *wooden* buckets.
4. Time; as, *daily*, *weekly*, *annual*, *subsequent*, *everlasting*.
5. Situation; as, the *above* rule, the *off* horse, the *under* side.
6. Direction; as, a *west* wind, the *homeward* journey.
7. An indefinite number; as, *several*, *sundry*, *few*, *many*, *numerous*.
8. Negation; as, "There is *no* music in his soul."

EXERCISE.

Supply adjectives of the classes indicated:—Alexander the Great was a (*common*) general; he invaded (*common*) lands, subdued (*common*) nations, took (*common*) cities, was successful in (*pronominal*) battle, and added much to (*proper*) glory.—(*Pronominal*) boys are so (*common*) that they can not tell how much (*cardinal*) times eleven is.—The United States has had two (*common*) and (*common*) wars with the (*proper*) nation; during the (*ordinal*), Madison was president.—Darkness and tempest make a (*multiplicative*) night.—(*Proper*) politeness is famous the world over.

LESSON XXXIII.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

"The country is pleasant in spring, pleasanter in summer, but pleasantest in autumn."

206. Here we are told that the quality of pleasantness belongs to the country in different degrees at different times. These different degrees are implied in the words *pleasant*, *pleasanter*, *pleasantest*. By varying the form of an adjective, therefore, we may make it express in different degrees the quality which it denotes.

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pronominal adjectives? 205. What are the Common Adjectives? State what a common adjective may express, and give examples in each case.

206. Repeat the sentence given at the commencement of this lesson. What are we here told? In what words are these different degrees implied? By varying

207. COMPARISON.— Adjectives are not declined. But some, principally the common adjectives, are *compared*,—that is, varied in form, to express different degrees of the quality they denote: as, *few*, *fewer*, *fewest*; *witty*, *wittier*, *wittiest*.

208. DEGREES OF COMPARISON.—There are three degrees expressed by different forms of the adjective. They are called Degrees of Comparison, and are distinguished as the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.

The **Positive** is the degree expressed by an adjective in its primitive form; as, "He is *wise* and *happy*."

The **Comparative** is a higher degree than some other or others with which it is compared; as, "He is *wiser* and *happier* than I or thou." "He is *wiser* and *happier* than he was." "He is *wiser* than he is happy."

The **Superlative** is the highest degree of all that are compared; as, "He is the *wisest* and *happiest* of us all."

209. FORMATION OF THE DEGREES.—The Comparative Degree is formed by annexing **er**, and the Superlative by annexing **est**, to the Positive; as,

Pos.	Pleasant,	Rude,	Holy,	Wet,
Comp.	pleasanter,	rud-er,	holier,	wetter,
Sup.	pleasantest.	rud-est.	holiest.	wettest.

In annexing *er* and *est*, omit final *e*, change final *y* to *i*, or double the final consonant, if it is required by the rules of spelling. See the last three examples.

210. Many adjectives of one syllable are compared,

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the form of an adjective, then, what may we make it express? 207. What do we mean when we say that adjectives are *compared*? 208. How many degrees are expressed by different forms of the adjective? What are they called? How are they distinguished? What is the Positive? What is the Comparative? What is the Superlative? 209. How are the comparative and the superlative degree formed? Give examples. In some cases, what changes have to be made? 210. What adjectives are compared? What adjectives are not compared?

and some of two syllables; but none of more than two. We use *quicker, quickest; prettier, prettiest:* but NOT *peacefuler, peacefulest; gloriouser, gloriousest.*

211. Some adjectives have a meaning that does not admit of different degrees; hence they can not be compared. This is the case with proper and numeral adjectives, with most of the pronominals, and with such common adjectives as *chief, countless, infinite, golden, enough, daily, no,* &c.

212. In stead of annexing *er* and *est* to the primitive form of the adjective, we may express the same ideas by prefixing to it the adverbs *more* and *most;* as, *quick, more quick, most quick.* These forms are more common than those in *er* and *est,* when the adjective consists of two syllables, and are altogether used when it has more than two. In the case of monosyllables, however, the forms in *er* and *est* are preferred. Thus, *more pleasant, most pleasant,* are more frequently used than *pleasanter, pleasantest;* but *shorter, shortest,* are preferred to *more short, most short.*

213. Other adverbs besides *more* and *most* may be joined to adjectives, to express different degrees; such as, *less* and *least, very, exceedingly, surpassingly,* &c. An adjective, however, does not become comparative or superlative by having any of these adverbs joined to it, but only when *er* or *est* is added, or its form is otherwise altered.

214. RULE X.—An adjective relates to the substantive whose meaning it qualifies or limits.

To find this substantive, a question may be asked with *who* or *what.* Thus:—"The elephant is the *largest* of beasts." *Question.* The largest *what* of beasts? *Answer.* The largest *beast* of beasts. *Largest* relates to *beast* understood.

215. PARSING.—To parse an adjective, state its class; if it can be compared, compare it and mention its degree; tell what it relates to, and repeat Rule X.

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211. What prevents some adjectives from being compared? 212. Besides annexing *er* and *est,* what other mode is there of expressing the same ideas? In what adjectives is the use of *more* and *most* more frequent? In what adjectives are *er* and *est* preferred? 213. Mention some other adverbs that may be joined to adjectives to express different degrees. When alone is an adjective said to be compared? 214. Recite Rule X. How can you find the substantive to which an adjective relates? 215. How is an adjective parsed? Learn the forms.

June roses are the sweetest and most beautiful of flowers.

June is a proper adjective, and relates to *roses*:—*Rule*, An adjective relates to the substantive whose meaning it qualifies or limits.

Sweetest is a common adjective; *sweet, sweeter, sweetest;* in the superlative degree, and relates to *flowers* understood:—*Rule*, An adjective, &c.

Most is an adverb.

Beautiful is a common adjective, and relates to *flowers* understood:—*Rule*, An adjective, &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns, pronouns, articles, and adjectives:—Of the five senses, sight and hearing are the most useful and necessary to man.—There are no brighter tints or lovelier contrasts than an Italian sunset affords.—The smartest child sometimes makes the dullest man.—Mezzofanti, one of the most industrious of men and greatest of linguists, was master of one hundred and fourteen languages.—A merrier party than this of ours, flying over snow-mantled fields and ice-bound brooks, can not be imagined.

LESSON XXXIV.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

216. Some adjectives are compared irregularly:—

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Sup.*	*Pos.*	*Comp.*	*Sup.*
Bad, evil, ill,	worse,	worst.	Many,	more,	most.
Good,	better,	best.	Much,	more,	most.
Little,	less, lesser,	least.	Near,	nearer,	nearest, next.

217. *Less* is the common comparative of *little*, and means either *not so great* or *not so much;* as, a *less* effort, *less* virtue. *Lesser* is sometimes used in poetry, less frequently in prose, but always with the meaning of *not so great;* as the *lesser* light (that is, the moon), the *lesser* virtues, the *lesser* graces.

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216. Compare *bad; good; little; many; much; near.* 217. What is the common comparative of *little*? What does it mean? What other form is used?

218. The following take both a regular and an irregular form :—

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Sup.*	*Pos.*	*Comp.*	*Sup.*
Late,	later, / latter,	latest, / last.	Old,	older, / elder,	oldest, / eldest.

219. *Later* and *latest* are used with reference to time ; *latter*, to order ; *last*, to either. We say, *Later* arrivals ; the *latest* tidings ; the *latter* circumstance ; the *last* day ; the *last* in the line.

220. *Older* and *oldest* are the common forms, and may always be used ; but, when members of the same family are spoken of, *elder* is preferred to *older* unless *than* follows, and *eldest* to *oldest*. We say, An *older* monument ; the *oldest* wine ; an *older* brother than I ; an *elder* brother ; the *eldest* of the children.

221. The following adjectives make a superlative in *most* :—

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Sup.*
Far,	farther,	farthest, farmost, farthermost.
Fore,	former,	foremost, first.
Hind,	hinder,	hindmost, hindermost.
Low,	lower,	lowest, lowermost.

222. The following have no adjective positive, being formed for the most part from adverbs :—

Adv.	*Comp.*	*Sup.*
(Aft)	After,	aftmost, aftermost.
(Forth)	Further,	furthest, furthermost.
(In)	Inner,	inmost, innermost.
(Out)	Outer, / Utter,	outmost, outermost. / utmost, uttermost.
(Up)	Upper,	upmost, uppermost.
—	Hither,	hithermost.
—	Nether,	nethermost.

223. The following have no comparative :—

What is its meaning ? 218. Compare *late*. 219. To what do *later* and *latest* refer ? To what, *latter* and *last* ? 220. Compare *old*. Which are the common forms ? When are *elder* and *eldest* preferred ? 221. Compare *far ; fore ; hind ; low*. 222. From what do some adjectives in the comparative and superlative come ? What come from *aft* ? *Forth* ? *In* ? *Out* ? *Up* ? Compare *hither ; nether*. 223. Compare *bottom ; front ; rear ; under ; north ; northern*. What others are compared

Pos.	*Sup.*	*Pos.*	*Sup.*
Bottom,	bottommost.	Top,	topmost.
End,	endmost.	Under,	undermost.
Front,	frontmost.	North,	northmost.
Head,	headmost.	Northern,	northernmost.
Rear,	rearmost.	South,	southmost, &c.

224. The comparatives *superior* and *inferior*, *anterior* and *posterior*, *prior* and *ulterior*, *junior* and *senior*, *major* and *minor*, taken without change from the Latin language, have neither positive nor superlative. In stead of being followed by the conjunction *than*, like other comparatives, the first five take the preposition *to*, the last five take neither *than* nor *to*. Thus:—*Superior to* what I expected; *posterior to* Milton; *prior to* the Deluge; *ulterior* designs; Adam Jones, *junior;* a *senior* partner; the *major* part.

225. A few compound adjectives are compared by varying their first element; as,

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Sup.*
Good-natured,	better-natured,	best-natured.
Ill-tempered,	worse-tempered,	worst-tempered.
Bright-eyed,	brighter-eyed,	brightest-eyed.

226. *Caution.*—Comparatives and superlatives must not be further compared; nor should the adverbs *more* and *most* be used with them. Avoid, therefore, such expressions as *worser*, *fartherest*, *more fairer*, *more inferior*, *most highest*, *most straitest*, &c.

EXERCISE.

Compare tender; dull; warm-hearted; noble; soft; near; narrow; south-western; late; evil; junior; long-headed; sweet; rear; pretty; eastern; good-tempered; bad-hearted; fit; much; outer; jolly; strong-minded.

Parse the nouns, pronouns, articles, and adjectives:—The more

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like *north*, *northern*? 224. Mention some comparatives taken without change from the Latin. In what degrees are they not found? Which are followed by the preposition *to*? Which take neither *than* nor *to*? 225. How are a few compound adjectives compared? Give examples. 226. What caution is given in connection with comparatives and superlatives? What expressions must therefore be avoided?

haste, the less speed.—The first shall be last.—The wisest and best men sometimes make the worst mistakes.—The uppermost thought in my mind was of my eldest sister.—I never saw an uglier or worse-tempered horse than that.—The hindmost man and the frontmost were a mile apart.—A prior* engagement prevented me from calling on our junior partner.

LESSON XXXV.

A WRITTEN EXERCISE.

Write the plural of alley; ally; sirocco; stitch; hemistich [pronounced *hem'-is-tik*]; topaz; Jehu; lasso; punctilio; penknife; wharf; dormouse; penman; washerwoman; head; hose; chintz; summons; barn-yard; roomful; beau; sarcophagus; encomium.—*Of each of these plurals, tell whether it is a monosyllable, dissyllable, trisyllable, or polysyllable, and which syllable is accented.*

Write the correlative (masculine or feminine, as the case may be) of tailoress; marchioness; infanta; benefactor; Theodora; Henrietta; Victoria; lady; hart; school-mistress; Irishman; male-servant; husband; priest; nephew.—*In the correlatives thus written, point out the proper and the improper diphthongs.*

Write the possessive singular and the possessive plural of lynx; volley; mercy; soliloquy; delay; major-domo; deer; dwarf; salmon; alderman; talisman; I; thou; she; myself; one; other; another; who; which; whosoever.—*Divide these possessives into their syllables.*

Prefix the proper form of the indefinite article to art; bushel; cape; dress; eddy; ewer;—eulogistic discourse; frown; girl; hiss;—humble prayer;—high tower;—honorable place;—hopeful son; heir; ill; jest; keg; lamb; meal; net; owl;—once mighty empire; pail; queen; rock; seal; town; urn; unicorn; vase; world;—weighty secret; xebec; yacht; zone.

Prefix an appropriate common adjective to waiters; clocks; steam-boats; paintings; teachers; cities; sheep; fields; carriages; carpets; oaks.

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* Parse thus:—*Prior* is a common adjective, in the comparative degree; positive and superlative wanting; it belongs to *engagement*:—*Rule*, An adjective, &c.

LESSON XXXVI.

VERBS AND THEIR CLASSES.

227. THE VERB.—The fifth part of speech is the Verb.

Assertions.	Carlo *barks.*	Carlo *is* cross.
Exclamations.	How Carlo *barks!*	How Carlo *sleeps!*
Questions.	*Can* Carlo *bark?*	*Has* Carlo *been hurt?*
Commands.	Carlo, *do* not *bark.*	Carlo, *eat* your meat.

In each of the above sentences, something is affirmed, or said, about Carlo. In the first line, we assert something about him; in the second, we exclaim something; in the third, we ask something; in the fourth, we command something. The general term *affirm* is applied to all four of these modes of speaking. When we *affirm*, therefore, we may *assert*, *exclaim*, *ask*, or *command.*

228. Observe the words in italics in the eight sentences above. It is these that affirm. *Barks*, *can bark*, and *do bark*, affirm an action not exerted on any person or thing. *Is* and *sleep* affirm states. *Has been hurt* affirms an action exerted on Carlo. *Eat* affirms an action exerted on meat. Here, then, we have a new class of words, which affirm. They are called VERBS.

229. A **Verb** is a word or words used to affirm an action or a state.

A verb may consist of several words; as, *has been hurt*, in the above example.

230. THE SUBJECT.—That about which the action or state is affirmed, is called the Subject of the verb.

The noun *Carlo* is the subject of the verb in each of the eight sentences at the commencement of the lesson, except the two that express commands—*Carlo, do not bark*, and *Carlo, eat your meat.* In these, *Carlo* is in the nominative independent, and the pronoun *you* understood is the

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227. What is the fifth part of speech? Repeat two assertions respecting Carlo; two exclamations; two questions; two commands. What general term is applied to all four of these modes of speaking? 228. What words affirm in these sentences? What are such words called? 229. What is a Verb? Of what may a verb consist? 230. What is the subject of a verb? What is the subject in the first six examples given at the commencement of the lesson? What, in the other

subject of the verb—*do not* [*you*] *bark, eat* [*you*] *your meat.* We learn, then, 1. That the subject of a verb may be a noun or pronoun. 2. That it is sometimes understood.

231. The subject of a verb is easily found by putting *who* or *what* before it. A question is thus asked, and whatever answers this question is the subject. Thus: in the sentence *Carlo barks because he is hungry*, we wish to know the subjects of the verbs *barks* and *is*. *Who barks?* Answer, *Carlo; Carlo* is the subject of the verb *barks.*—*Because who is hungry?* Answer, *he; he* is the subject of the verb *is.*

232. TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS. — With regard to their meaning, verbs are distinguished as Transitive and Intransitive.

A **Transitive Verb** is one that affirms an action exerted on some person or thing; as, "Sarah *broke* the bottle." "The bottle *is broken.*" In both of these examples, the breaking is exerted on the bottle.

An **Intransitive Verb** is one that affirms a state, or an action not exerted on any person or thing; as, "Sarah *is* happy." "Sarah *wept.*"

In these examples, *is* affirms a state; *wept*, an action not exerted on an object. If we were told what Sarah wept—"Sarah wept tears of sorrow"—*wept* would be a transitive verb.

233. It follows that the same verb may be transitive in one sentence and intransitive in another. Thus:—He *turned* his face. He *turned.*—Helen *sings* simple melodies. Helen *sings.*—I *can* not *see* the fire. I *can* not *see.*—Here the omission of the object in each case makes the verb intransitive.

234. *Caution.*—An intransitive verb is often followed by *for, in, of*, or some other preposition, with its object; as, "*Beware of* the wicked." "Many *frowned upon* his efforts." In such cases, do not mistake the verb for transitive; the object belongs to the preposition and not to the verb.

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two? What do we learn, then, respecting the subject of a verb? 231. How may the subject of a verb be found? Give examples. 232. With regard to their meaning, how are verbs distinguished? Define a Transitive Verb. Define an Intransitive Verb. 233. What follows with respect to the same verb in different sentences? 234. In what cases is there danger of mistaking an intransitive verb for transitive? In such constructions, to what does the object belong?

EXERCISE.

Select the verbs (remembering that a verb sometimes consists of several words); *state whether they are transitive or intransitive; mention the subject of each, and, when the verb is transitive, its object:*—Nimrod founded Babylon.—Steam weaves, knits, ploughs, grinds, saws, and saves man labor in a thousand ways.—Sleep on now, and take your rest.—How many does intemperance ruin!—Will not a wise government establish schools, found colleges, and foster education?

Cæsar gained a complete victory, and sent this message to the senate: "I came, I saw, I conquered!"—The lion skulks from man in the day-time; but he becomes bold at night, prowls around watch-fires, and often carries off human victims.

LESSON XXXVII.

VOICE.

235. Look at the following sentences, which express exactly the same idea:—

Cæsar invaded Britain.

Britain was invaded by Cæsar.

In the first sentence, the subject of the transitive verb *invaded* is *Cæsar*, the name of the person acting. *Britain*, the name of the thing acted upon, is the object of the verb, and therefore in the objective case.—In the second sentence, *Britain* is the subject of the transitive verb *was invaded*, and the former subject *Cæsar* is now in the objective case, the object of the preposition *by*. The subject of a transitive verb may therefore denote that which acts or that which is acted upon, according to the form of the verb.

236. **Voice** is that property of transitive verbs which distinguishes their subjects as acting or acted upon.

237. There are two voices, the Active and the Passive.

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235. Repeat the two sentences presented at the commencement of the lesson. How do the ideas they express, compare? State the different relations in which the nouns *Cæsar* and *Britain* stand in these sentences. What, then, may the subject of a transitive verb denote? 236. What is Voice? 237. How many voices

When its subject denotes that which acts, a transitive verb is said to be in the Active Voice; as, "Cæsar *invaded* Britain."

When its subject denotes that which is acted upon, a transitive verb is said to be in the Passive Voice; as, "Britain *was invaded* by Cæsar."

238. An intransitive verb has no voice. Its subject *always* denotes that which acts or is in a certain state. The form of an intransitive verb corresponds with that of a transitive verb in the active voice.

239. We sometimes meet with an intransitive verb and a preposition following it used as a compound transitive verb, and as such thrown into the passive form. Thus:—"This event was *looked for*." "The awkward are *laughed at*." Here in parsing we must take *looked for*, *laughed at*, together, and call them transitive verbs in the passive voice.

EXERCISE.

Select the verbs; state whether they are transitive or intransitive, and if transitive mention their voice. Parse the nouns and pronouns:—The patriot will struggle, bleed, and die, for his native land.—Linseed oil, which is much used in the arts, is expressed from the seeds of flax.—Athens was founded by Cecrops, who led thither a colony from Egypt.—Those who have once been imposed upon, are apt to be suspicious.

Supply intransitive verbs. Point out the subject of each:—Roses—sweet. Hemp—in Kentucky. Tea—from China. Livingston—in Africa. The Hungarians—against the Austrians. Victoria—over England. Cornwallis—at Yorktown.

Supply transitive verbs. Point out the subject and the object of each:—Wolves—many sheep. Caravans—the Great Desert. Astronomers closely—the heavens at night, and sometimes—comets. England—a powerful navy. The Turks—coffee. Travellers—many strange things. Cornwallis—his army at Yorktown.

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are there? Name them. When is a verb said to be in the active voice? When, in the passive voice? 238. What verbs have no voice? What does the subject of an intransitive verb always denote? With what does its form correspond? 239. Show how an intransitive verb followed by a preposition is sometimes thrown into the passive form.

LESSON XXXVIII.

PROPERTIES OF VERBS.—MOOD.—TENSE.

240. PROPERTIES OF VERBS.—Look at the sentence, "I love peace."

Observe four things about the verb *love* in this sentence:—

1. It affirms *in a positive manner.* Not I *may love*, or I *can love;* but I *love.*

2. It affirms that the act is going on *at the present time.* Not I *did love* yesterday, or I *shall love* to-morrow, but I *love* now.

3. It affirms *about the speaker.* Not *you* love, or *he* loves; but *I*, the person speaking, love.

4. It affirms *about one person.* Not *we* love, or *many* love; but *I*, one person, love.—Hence we see that

Verbs have four properties; viz.,

1. Mood, which distinguishes the manner of the affirmation.

2. Tense, which distinguishes its time.

3. Person, which distinguishes the affirmation as made about the speaker, that which is spoken to, or that which is spoken of.

4. Number, which distinguishes the affirmation as made about one or more than one.

241. MOOD.—**Mood** is that property of the verb which distinguishes the manner in which it affirms.

An action or state may be affirmed *positively.* "I *depart.*"

An action or state may be affirmed *contingently*,—that is, as possible. "I *may depart.*"

An action or state may be affirmed *conditionally*,—that is, as a condition. "If I *depart*, he shall remain."

An action or state may be affirmed *imperatively*,—that is, as a command. "*Depart* this instant."

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240. In the sentence "*I love peace*," what four things are to be observed about the verb *love*? How many properties have verbs? Name them, and tell what each distinguishes. 241. What is Mood? Mention and illustrate the five ways in which we may affirm an action or state. Hence there are how many moods?

An action or state may be affirmed *unlimitedly*,—that is, without being limited to any subject. "I desire *to depart*."—Hence

There are five ways in which we may affirm an action or state, and therefore there are five moods. They are called the Indicative, the Potential, the Subjunctive, the Imperative, and the Infinitive.

242. A verb in the indicative, potential, subjunctive, or imperative mood, is limited to a subject, and is therefore called Finite.

243. TENSE.—**Tense** is that property of the verb which distinguishes the time of what it affirms.

An action may be affirmed as taking place, or a state as existing, at the present time. "I *depart*."

An action may be affirmed as having taken place, or a state as having existed, at some past time. "I *departed*."

A past action or state may be affirmed as completed at the present time. "I *have departed*."

A past action or state may be affirmed as completed at or before some other past time mentioned. "I *had departed* before my father arrived."

An action may be affirmed as about to take place, or a state as about to exist. "I *shall depart*."

A future action or state may be affirmed as about to be completed at or before some other future time mentioned. "I *shall have departed* by Christmas."—Hence

There are six varieties of time, and therefore six tenses. They are called the Present, the Imperfect, the Perfect, the Pluperfect, the First Future, and the Second Future.

244. The grand divisions of time are three in number; the Present, the Past, and the Future. The present tense belongs to the first; the imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect, to the second; the first future and second future, to the third.

What are they called? 242. In what moods is a verb limited to a subject? What is a verb in any of these moods called? 243. What is Tense? Mention and illustrate the six varieties of time at which an action may be represented as taking place, or a state as existing. Hence there are how many tenses? What are they called? 244. Name the three grand divisions of time. Which of the tenses belongs to the first of these? Which of the tenses are past? Which are future?

EXERCISE.

Form five sentences with different moods of the verb pray, *in which the action will be affirmed*, 1. *Positively;* 2. *Contingently;* 3. *Conditionally;* 4. *Imperatively;* 5. *Unlimitedly. For examples see the paragraphs in fine print* § 241.

Form six sentences with different tenses of the verb pray, *in which the action will be affirmed*, 1. *As taking place now;* 2. *As having taken place yesterday;* 3. *As just completed at the present time;* 4. *As completed before some other past action;* 5. *As about to take place to-morrow;* 6. *As to be completed before some other future action. For examples see* § 243.

LESSON XXXIX.

THE INDICATIVE MOOD AND ITS TENSES.

245. The **Indicative Mood** is used chiefly for asserting positively and asking questions; also for expressing a condition or supposition.

Positive Assertion.—I *see* the prince.
Question.—*Do* you *see* the prince?
Condition.—If he *will go*, I will remain.
Supposition.—If I *had been* wise, I would have remained.

246. All six tenses are found in the indicative mood.

247. INDICATIVE PRESENT.—This tense denotes,

1. Present time simply; as, "I *ask*."

2. Present time used for the past, to bring what is affirmed more vividly before the eye; as, "Napoleon at once *crosses* the river, *engages* the enemy, and *gains* a complete victory."

3. Present time used for the future; as, "When the war *ends*, prosperity will return."

248. SIGNS.—None in the simple form.—I *ask*.

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245. For what is the Indicative Mood chiefly used? 246. Name its tenses. 247. What does the present indicative denote, as regards time? 248. What sign

Do in the negative, emphatic, and interrogative form.—You *do* not *ask* my pardon. I *do ask* it. *Do* you *ask* it?

Am in the progressive form, to denote the continuance of an action or state in an emphatic manner.—I *am asking.*

Am in the passive voice.—I *am asked.*

249. INDICATIVE IMPERFECT.—This tense denotes,

1. Past time simply; as, "I *asked.*"

2. An action or state habitual in past time; as, "Napoleon *took* snuff,"—that is, was in the habit of taking it.

250. SIGNS.—None in the simple form.—I asked.

Did in the negative, emphatic, and interrogative form.—You *did* not *ask* my pardon. I *did ask* it. *Did* you *ask* it?

Was in the progressive form and the passive voice.—I *was asking.* *was asked.*

251. INDICATIVE PERFECT.—This tense denotes,

1. The time of a past action or state completed at the present; as, "I *have dined.*"

2. The time of a past action or state continued to the present; as, "I *have been looking* for you every day."

3. The time of a past action or state connected with the present by consequences or results still existing; as, "Virgil *has written* some noble verses."

4. After *when*, *till*, *before*, *after*, &c., it is used in the sense of the second future. It then denotes the time of a future action or state which will be completed at or before some other future time mentioned; as, "I will remain till I *have seen* my father."

252. SIGN.—*Have.*—I *have asked.* I *have been asking.* I *have been asked.*

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has it in the simple form? What, in the negative, emphatic, and interrogative form? What, in the progressive form? What, in the passive voice? 249. What does the imperfect indicative denote? 250. What sign has it in the simple form? What, in the negative, emphatic, and interrogative form? What, in the progressive form and the passive voice? 251. How many varieties of time does the perfect indicative denote? What is the first of these? What is the second? What is the third? What is the fourth? 252. What is the sign of the perfect indica-

253. INDICATIVE PLUPERFECT.—This tense denotes the time of a past action or state completed at or before some other past time mentioned; as, "Virgil *had started* before the emperor arrived."

254. SIGN.—*Had.*—I *had asked.* I *had been asking.* I *had been asked.*

255. INDICATIVE FIRST FUTURE.—This tense denotes,

1. Future time simply; as, "We *shall* all *die.*"

2. Determination with respect to a future action or state; as, "You *shall* not *go.*"

256. SIGNS.—*Shall, will.*—I *shall ask*, I *will ask.*—I *shall be asking*, I *will be asking.* I *shall be asked*, I *will be asked.*

257. INDICATIVE SECOND FUTURE.—This tense denotes the time of a future action or state which will be completed at or before some other future time mentioned; as, "I *shall have dined* by the time you arrive."

258. SIGNS.—*Shall have, will have.*—I *shall have asked*, I *will have asked.* I *shall have been asking*, I *will have been asking.* I *shall have been asked*, I *will have been asked.*

259. INTERROGATIVE FORMS.—All the tenses of the indicative mood may be used interrogatively,—that is, to ask a question. In the interrogative forms of the tenses, the position of the subject is changed. Thus:—

Pres.—Do you ask?	*Plu.*—Had you asked?
Imperf.—Did you ask?	1*st Fu.*—Will you ask?
Perf.—Have you asked?	2*nd Fu.*—Will you have asked?

EXERCISE.

Select the verbs; tell whether they are transitive or intransitive; state their voice (if they are transitive), their mood, and tense:—Cuvier thinks it probable that whales sometimes live a thousand

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tive? 253. What does the pluperfect indicative denote? 254. What is the sign of this tense? 255. What does the first future indicative denote? 256. Mention its signs? 257. What does the second future indicative denote? 258. Mention its signs. 259. How may all the tenses of the indicative mood be used? Give the interrogative forms of the several tenses.

years.—Do riches make the man?—We have just seen Louis Philippe, who was driven from the throne of France.—The English had settled Virginia before the Puritans reached Massachusetts.—Truth will prevail.—Shall falsehood triumph?—The Persia will have arrived by Christmas.—Had you heard of the death of Humboldt?—Am I wrong?—Did Milton sell "Paradise Lost" for five guineas?

LESSON XL.

THE POTENTIAL MOOD AND ITS TENSES.

260. The **Potential Mood** is used for affirming an action or state either absolutely or as a condition or supposition.

261. Four tenses are found in the potential mood. They have the same names as the first four tenses of the indicative, but may convey different ideas as regards time. The two futures are wanting in the potential, future time being often denoted by the present and the imperfect.

262. POTENTIAL PRESENT.—The present tense of the potential mood affirms permission, possibility, desire, ability, or necessity, with respect to what is either present or future.

	PRESENT.	FUTURE.
PERMISSION.—	You *may play* now.	You *may play* next week.
POSSIBILITY.—	I *may be* wrong.	I *may start* this evening.
DESIRE.—	Oh! *may* she now *be* happy!	*May* you *die* happy!
ABILITY.—	You certainly *can see*.	You *can see* Venus to-night.
NECESSITY.—	I *must start* at once.	I *must start* to-morrow.
(*Negative.*)	I *need* not *start* now.	I *need* not *start* to-morrow.

260. What is the Potential Mood used for affirming? 261. How many tenses are found in the potential mood? Name them. What two tenses are wanting in this mood? By what tenses is future time often denoted? 262. What does the present tense of the potential mood affirm? Give examples in which permission

It will be seen that the other words in the sentence determine whether present or future time is denoted by the verb.

263. Signs.—*May, can, must, need.*

264. Potential Imperfect.—The imperfect potential is used as a leading verb to affirm,

1. Present possibility, on condition of something, the opposite of which, it is implied, is really the case; as, "I *might think* you honest, if you would admit my claim,"—implying that you do not admit it.

2. Ability with respect to what is past; as, "I *could* not *find* it yesterday."

3. Determination with respect to what is either past, present, or future; as, "He *would* not *start* yesterday." "He *would* not *start* this moment, if he could." "He *would* not *start* to-morrow, were it possible."

4. Obligation with respect to what is either present or future; as, "He *should write* home at once, to-morrow."

265. The imperfect potential is used in a dependent clause, connected with a leading verb in the imperfect tense, to affirm permission, possibility, ability, determination, or obligation, with respect to what is either past, present, or future.

Permission.—He said that I *might play* yesterday, now, to-morrow.
Possibility.—You said you *might arrive* yesterday, to-day, to-morrow.
Ability.—He said that he *could* not *meet* me yesterday, now, to-morrow.
Determination.—I said that I *would go* yesterday, now, to-morrow.
Obligation.—I said that you *should write* yesterday, now, to-morrow.

266. Signs.—*Might, could, would, should.*

267. Potential Perfect.—The perfect tense of the potential mood affirms possibility, conviction, or necessity, with reference to a past action or state completed at the present time.

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is affirmed; possibility; desire; ability; necessity. How is it determined whether present or future time is denoted? 263. What are the signs of the present potential? 264. What four ideas may be conveyed by a leading verb in the imperfect potential? 265. What does a verb in the imperfect potential, in a dependent clause, affirm? Give an example in which permission is affirmed; possibility; ability; determination; obligation. 266. What are the signs of the imperfect potential? 267. What does the perfect potential affirm? What is the sign of the perfect potential when possibility is expressed? What is the sign in the interrogative form,

SIGNS. (Possibility.) *May have.*—He may have dined,—that is, it is possible.
(Possibility, interrogative form.) *Can have.*—Can he have dined?—that is, is it possible?
(Possibility, negative form.) *Can have.*—He can not have dined,—that is, it is not possible.
(Possibility, negative interrogative form.) *May have.*—May he not have dined?—that is, is it not possible?
(Conviction.) *Must have.*—He must have gone,—that is, I am convinced that he has.
(Necessity.) *Need have.*—Need he have gone? He need not have gone. That is, was it necessary? It was not necessary.

268. POTENTIAL PLUPERFECT.—The pluperfect tense of the potential mood affirms possibility, ability, determination, willingness, or obligation, with reference to a past action or state completed at some past time.

SIGNS. (Possibility.) *Might have.*—I might have saved his life.
(Ability.) *Could have.*—I could have saved his life.
(Willingness.) *Would have.*—I would have died to save his life.
(Obligation.) *Should have.*—You should have tried to save his life.

269. INTERROGATIVE FORMS.—All the tenses of the potential mood may be used interrogatively. Thus:—

Present.—May I ask? Can I ask? Must I ask? Need I ask?
Imperfect.—Might I ask? Could I ask? Would I ask? Should I ask?
Perfect.—May I not have asked? Can I have asked? Must I have asked? Need I have asked?
Pluperfect.—Might I have asked? Could I have asked? Would I have asked? Should I have asked?

EXERCISE.

Select the verbs; tell whether they are transitive or intransitive; state their voice (if they are transitive), their mood and tense, and what each affirms. [Thus:—Napoleon could not remain at rest. *Could remain* is an intransitive verb, in the potential mood, im-

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when possibility is expressed? In the negative form? In the negative interrogative form? What is the sign when conviction is expressed? When necessity is expressed? 268. What does the pluperfect potential affirm? What is the sign when possibility is expressed? When ability is expressed? willingness? obligation? 269. How may all the tenses of the potential mood be used? Give the interrogative forms of the several tenses.

perfect tense, and affirms ability with respect to what is past.] We must start at once, for it may snow.—No man need despair.—Many boys could learn, if they would study.—Wellington feared that the enemy might fall on his rear.—Can we have mistaken the way? We must have done so.

Washington might have made himself king.—Cæsar should have paused at the Rubicon.—Possibly he may have done so.—Can this be true?—Ye would not come to me that ye might have life.—Cleopatra need not have fled.

LESSON XLI.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE AND IMPERATIVE MOOD.

270. The **Subjunctive Mood** is used chiefly for expressing a condition or supposition; as, "Unless thou *go*, I will not stay." "Though he *slay* me, yet will I love him."

271. This mood is called *Subjunctive*, because it is used in a clause *subjoined* to the leading part of a sentence. Thus, in the first example given above, the clause *unless thou go* is subjoined to the leading part of the sentence *I will not stay*, to express the condition of my staying; and the verb *go* is in the subjunctive mood.

272. The subjoined clause is generally connected with the rest of the sentence by *if*, *that*, *though*, *although*, *lest*, *unless*, or *whether*. These connectives are called Conjunctions.

273. Sometimes the conjunction is omitted; as, "See [*that*] thou do it."

Even when a conjunction is used, it is not always a sign of the subjunctive mood. The indicative or potential may follow in the subjoined clause; as, "See that he *does* it well."

274. The subjunctive mood has but two tenses, the Present and the Imperfect.

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270. What is the subjunctive mood chiefly used to express? 271. Why is this mood called *subjunctive*? Illustrate this. 272. How is the subjoined clause generally connected with the rest of the sentence? What are these connectives called? 273. What do we sometimes find respecting the conjunction? What moods, besides the subjunctive, may follow a conjunction? 274. Name the tenses

275. SUBJUNCTIVE PRESENT.—This tense is used,

1. To affirm a condition or supposition connected with some future action or state; as, "If he *promise*, he will perform." But, in such cases, the indicative is now more frequently used: "If he *promises*, he will perform."

2. It is used after a conjunction following a verb that commands, to express the action or state commanded or forbidden; as, "Take care that thou *remain*." "Beware lest thou *sin*."

Also in similar constructions after *it is necessary, it is desirable*, &c.; as, "It is necessary that these rules *be observed*." In such cases, the indicative—"It is necessary that these rules *are observed*"—would be wrong.

276. SIGNS.—In the active voice, usually none, rarely *do*.—"If he but *touch* the hills," or "If he *do* but *touch* the hills, they will smoke."

In the passive voice, *be*.—If I *be loved*.

277. SUBJUNCTIVE IMPERFECT.—The imperfect tense of the subjunctive mood expresses a wish or supposition, and implies that the opposite of the thing wished or supposed is really the case. Thus:—

Wish.—Oh that he *were* innocent (implying that he is not)!

Supposition.—If I *were* now as strong as I was a year ago, I would begin the work at once (implying that I am not so strong).

278. If the imperfect indicative is used in such suppositions, in stead of the imperfect subjunctive, it implies that the thing supposed is really the case; as, "If I *was* a spy, I still had rights."—When the form of the verb does not show whether it is in the indicative or the subjunctive, it is necessary in parsing to apply this test. If the thing supposed is really the case, the verb is in the indicative; if not, in the subjunctive.

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of the subjunctive mood. 275. What is the present subjunctive used to affirm? What is more frequently used in such cases? Under what circumstances is the present subjunctive used after a conjunction? In what similar constructions is it also employed? 276. What is the sign of the present subjunctive in the active voice? In the passive? 277. What does the imperfect subjunctive express? What does it always imply? Give examples. 278. If the imperfect indicative is used in such suppositions, what does it imply? How are you to tell the mood in

279. SIGNS.—In the active voice, usually none, rarely *did.*—If I *asked*, if I *did ask* (implying that I did not).

In the passive voice, *were.*—If I *were asked* (implying that I am not).

280. The **Imperative Mood** has only one tense, called the Present. It expresses a command, an entreaty, an exhortation, or permission, with reference either to present or future time.

Command.—*Do* not *talk* (either now or hereafter).

Entreaty.—*Do* not *weep*, or *weep* not.

Exhortation.—*Do* not *sin*, or *sin* not.

Permission.—*Stay* till Monday, if you wish.

281. SIGNS.—In the active voice, either none at all or *do.*—*Ask*, or *do ask.*

In the passive voice, *be.*—*Be asked.*

282. The subject of a verb in the imperative mood is generally understood. *Thou* or *you* understood is the subject in each of the examples just given:—Do not *thou* or *you* talk, &c.

EXERCISE.

Select the verbs; tell whether they are transitive or intransitive; mention their voice (if they are transitive), their mood, and tense:—If he be mad, I will eschew his company.—Though thou fall into sin, He will lift thee up.—Take care lest thy temper betray thee.—Whether thou be guilty or not, I will not leave thee.—If thou do but wink, he will espy it.—Respect yourself, and others will respect you.—Plough deep, while others sleep.—If I were a beggar, I would still be an honest one.—What right had he to insult her, if she was a beggar?

If you are wise, pause for a moment, and give up a course that can lead only to ruin.—Oh that men did but know the sweets of innocence!—If I were asked where nature assumes the strangest forms, I should say in Australia.—Rest assured that nothing has been created without some wise purpose.—If Cæsar was ambitious, he was at the same time magnanimous.

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parsing? 279. What is the sign of the imperfect subjunctive in the active voice? In the passive? 280. How many tenses has the imperative mood? What does it express? 281. What is the sign of the imperative in the active voice? In the passive? 282. How may the imperative mood generally be known?

LESSON XLII.

THE INFINITIVE MOOD.—PERSON AND NUMBER OF VERBS.

283. The **Infinitive Mood** expresses an action or state not limited to a subject.

It has two tenses, called the Present and the Perfect.

284. INFINITIVE PRESENT.—This tense expresses an uncompleted action or state not limited to a subject. It may be used in connection with what is past, present, or future; as, "I longed *to see* Ireland." "I long *to see* Ireland." "I shall go *to see* Ireland."

285. SIGN.—Generally, *to.—To ask; to be asking; to be asked.*—But after certain verbs *to* is omitted; as, "He bade me [*to*] *ask.*"

286. INFINITIVE PERFECT.—This tense expresses a completed action or state not limited to a subject. It may be used in connection with past or present time; as, "The Phœnicians were thought *to have settled* Ireland." "Washington is said *to have been* high-tempered."

287. SIGN.—*To have.—To have asked; to have been asking; to have been asked.*

288. Neither the subjunctive, the imperative, nor the infinitive, can be used interrogatively.

289. PERSON AND NUMBER OF VERBS.—Every finite verb has Person and Number. These correspond with the same properties in nouns.

290. *Person.*—A verb is said to be in the First Person, when it affirms of a person or persons speaking;

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283. What does the Infinitive Mood express? Name its tenses. 284. What is expressed by the present infinitive? 285. What is generally the sign of the present infinitive? 286. What is expressed by the perfect infinitive? With what time may it be used in connection? 287. What is the sign of the perfect infinitive? 288. What moods can not be used interrogatively? 289. What properties has every finite verb? With what do the person and number of verbs correspond? 290. When is a verb said to be in the first person? When, in the second? When, in

in the Second Person, when it affirms of an object or objects spoken to; in the Third Person, when it affirms of an object or objects spoken of.

Number.—A verb is said to be in the Singular Number, when it affirms of one person or thing; in the Plural, when it affirms of more than one.

The person and number of a verb, therefore, depend on the person and number of its subject. Hence

291. RULE XI.—A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

I pray;—the verb *pray* is 1st, sing., because its subject *I* is 1st, sing.
Thou prayest;—*prayest* is 2d, sing., because its subject *thou* is 2d, si.
He prays;—*prays* is 3rd, sing., because its subject *he* is 3rd, sing.
We pray;—*pray* is 1st, plural, because its subject *we* is 1st, plural.
You pray;—*pray* is 2nd, plural, because its subject *you* is 2nd, plural.
They pray;—*pray* is 3rd, plural, because its subject *they* is 3rd, plural.

In the second and third person singular, given above, the verb shows its person and number by its form,—*prayest*, *prays*. In the other four parts the form is the same, and the person and number of the verb can be told only by finding those of its subject.

292. Rule XI. does not apply to verbs in the infinitive mood, for they have no subject.

293. USAGES OF THE INFINITIVE.—A verb in the infinitive may be used as the subject of a finite verb; as, "To die for one's country is glorious." The infinitive *to die* is the subject of the finite verb *is*.

294. A verb in the infinitive may also be used to limit the meaning of some other word.

1. Of a noun; as, "It is my DUTY *to go*."
2. Of a pronoun; as, "For ME *to go* would be wrong."

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the third? When is a verb said to be in the singular number? When, in the plural? On what do the person and number of a verb depend? 291. Recite Rule XI. Give examples of the rule. In which of these examples does the verb show its person and number by its form? How are its person and number to be told in the other parts? 292. To what verbs does Rule XI. not apply? 293. What is the first usage of the infinitive mood? 294. For what else may a verb in the infinitive be used? Name the parts of speech that the infinitive may limit, and give an

8. Of an adjective; as, "It is HARD *to go.*"
4. Of a verb; as, "I WISH *to go.*"
5. Of an adverb; as, "I have walked ENOUGH *to tire* me out."
6. Of a preposition; as, "I am ABOUT *to go.*"
7. Of a conjunction; as, "Are you so foolish AS *to go?*"

295. Finally, a verb in the infinitive may be used independently,—that is, without limiting or relating to any other word; as, "*To speak* plainly, I think you are dishonest."

296. RULE XII.—A verb in the infinitive is used as a subject, or limits the meaning of some other word, or stands independently in the sentence.

297. PARSING.—To parse a verb, state its class, voice (if transitive), mood, and tense; if finite, its person and number, what it agrees with, and Rule XI.; if in the infinitive, what verb it is the subject of, or what it limits, and Rule XII. Thus:—

Though labor may be hard, to do nothing is still harder.

May be is an intransitive verb, in the potential mood, present tense, third person, singular number, and agrees with its subject *labor*:—*Rule*, A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

To do is a transitive verb, in the active voice, infinitive mood, present tense, the subject of the verb *is*:—*Rule*, A verb in the infinitive is used as a subject, or limits the meaning of some other word, or stands independently in the sentence.

Is is an intransitive verb, in the indicative mood, present tense, third person, singular number, and agrees with the infinitive *to do* for its subject:—*Rule*, A verb agrees, &c.

The Hebrews are thought to have invented letters.

Are thought is a transitive verb, in the passive voice, indicative mood, present tense, third person, plural number, and agrees with its subject *Hebrews*:—*Rule*, A verb agrees, &c.

To have invented is a transitive verb, in the active voice, infinitive mood,

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example of each. 295. Finally, how may a verb in the infinitive be used? 296. Recite Rule XII. 297. How is a verb to be parsed? Learn the parsing forms.

perfect tense, and limits the meaning of the verb *are thought*:—*Rule*, A verb in the infinitive, &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns, pronouns, articles, adjectives, and verbs:—Education makes the man.—Cato used to say, "The Romans rule the world, but women rule the Romans."—Those who win, may laugh.—The property of a state should educate its children.—See that thou be not wise in thy own conceit.—Gunpowder may have been known to the Chinese centuries ago.—A trombone was discovered in Herculaneum, where it had lain nearly two thousand years under the ashes.—Men need not perish.

LESSON XLIII.

PARTICIPLES.

298. To verbs belong participles.

I finished my meal and left the table.
Having finished my meal, I left the table.

Observe the two sentences just given. They convey the same idea, but in different forms. The one directly *affirms* that I finished my meal, the other assumes or implies it. In the one, the action is expressed by the verb *finished*; in the other, by *having finished*, which we call a Participle.

299. A **Participle** is a form of the verb that generally qualifies or limits the meaning of a substantive, by assuming some action or state in connection with it.

300. There are three participles; the Present, the Perfect, and the Compound Perfect.

301. The **Present Participle** assumes an action or state as going on at the time of some other action or state, past, present, or future.

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298. What words are embraced among verbs? Give the two sentences presented at the commencement of the lesson. Point out the difference between them. 299. Define a Participle. 300. How many participles are there? Give their names. 301. How does the present participle assume an action or state?

Past.—*Taking* leave of you, I departed.
Pres.—*Taking* leave of you, I depart.
Fut.—*Taking* leave of you, I will depart.

In each case, the *taking leave* is represented as going on at the time of the *departing*.

302. In the active voice, the present participle ends in *ing*; as, *asking*, *running*. In the passive voice, its sign is *being*; as, *being asked*.

303. The **Perfect Participle** assumes an action or state as completed at the time of some other action or state, past, present, or future.

Past.—He died, *respected* by all.
Pres.—He dies, *respected* by all.
Fut.—He will die, *respected* by all.

In each case, *respected* implies an action completed at the time of his *death*.

304. The perfect participle generally ends in *ed*, *t*, or *n*, and has the same form in both voices. In the active voice, it seldom if ever appears alone, but is used in forming the compound tenses; as, I have *asked*, I had *brought*, I shall have *fallen*. In the passive voice, it is used both alone and in forming the compound tenses; as, "He died, *loved* and *respected*." "I am *loved* and hope to be *respected*."

305. The **Compound Perfect Participle** assumes an action or state as completed before some other action or state, past, present, or future.

Past.—*Having learned* my lesson, I took a walk.
Pres.—*Having learned* my lesson, I take a walk every day.
Fut.—After *having learned* my lesson to-morrow, I shall take a walk.

306. In the active voice, the compound perfect participle is formed by prefixing *having* to the perfect participle; in the passive voice, by prefixing *having been*.—(Active.) *Having asked*, *having brought*, *having fallen*. (Passive.) *Having been asked*, *having been brought*.

307. To sum up, transitive verbs have three participles in the active voice, and three in the passive.

Give examples. 302. How does the present participle end in the active voice? What is its sign in the passive voice? 303. How does the perfect participle assume an action or state? Give examples. 304. How does the perfect participle generally end? For what alone is it used in the active voice? How is it used in the passive? 305. How does the compound perfect participle assume an action or state? 306. How is it formed in the active voice? How, in the passive? 307. Sum up what has been said on this subject. Give the participles of the verb *ask*. Give those of *fall*.

Intransitive verbs, having no passive voice, make but three participles, corresponding in form with those of transitive verbs in the active voice.

		Present.	*Perfect.*	*Compound Perfect.*
TRANSITIVE.	*Act.*	Asking,	asked,	having asked.
	Pas.	Being asked,	asked,	having been asked.
INTRANSITIVE.		Falling,	fallen,	having fallen.

EXERCISE.

Select and name the participles, stating their voice when they are transitive:—Burgoyne having surrendered at Saratoga, and the North being thus freed from the fear of invasion, joy spread through the land.—By writing frequently and carefully correcting what we have written, we learn to write well.—Having been condemned to death, Socrates refused to save his life by secretly escaping.—Hoping for the best, yet fearing the worst, Congress, though surrounded by difficulties, took measures to increase the army.

Turn each verb in italics into a participle, and, by omitting the conjunction or subject, complete the sentence properly without altering its meaning. [Thus:—Galileo *constructed* a telescope for himself, and made many important discoveries in astronomy.—*Changed. Having constructed* a telescope for himself, Galileo made, &c.] Do what is right, and *leave* the consequences to take care of themselves.—Gold, when it *is mixed* with copper, becomes harder.—Webster *arose* and addressed the meeting.—Braddock *rejected* the advice of Washington, and fell into a fatal ambuscade.—Porson *had been asked* his opinion, but did not commit himself.—The Indians of America *are thinned* out by intemperance and disease, and are daily becoming less numerous.

LESSON XLIV.

CONSTRUCTION OF PARTICIPLES.

308. CAUTIONS.—Do not confound a participle with an adjective of the same form. Both qualify or limit

308. With what must a participle not be confounded? How may adjectives

the meaning of substantives; but a participle implies in addition an action or state going on or completed, and may govern an object like a finite verb.

Adjectives.—A *hard-working* man (one that is in the habit of working hard); a *travelling* clerk; an *amusing* story; an *enlightened* mind.

Participles.—A man *working* hard (on some particular occasion); a clerk *travelling* in Georgia; *amusing* us with a story; a mind *enlightened* by education.

309. Do not confound the participle in *ing* with a participial noun of the same form. If the word in question has an adjective joined to it, it is a noun. If it is modified by an adverb or governs an object, it is a participle.

Noun.—*Reading* is taught in every school, yet good *reading* is rare.

Part.—The art of *reading* well is acquired by *imitating* a good teacher.

310. PARTICIPLES USED INDEPENDENTLY.—Participles generally qualify or limit the meaning of substantives. Sometimes, however, they do not relate to any particular noun or pronoun, and then they are said to be used *independently*. A participle used independently is often the object of a preposition.

"The art of *reading* well is all-important." "Generally *speaking*, the hardest workers are the happiest."—Here the participles *reading* and *speaking*, not relating to any particular noun or pronoun, are used independently. *Reading* is the object of the preposition *of*.

311. RULE XIII.—Participles are used independently, or relate to the substantives whose meaning they qualify or limit.

312. A participle, whether used independently or not, may take a noun or pronoun for its object. This noun or pronoun is in the objective case,

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and participles be distinguished? Give examples. 309. How may the participle in *ing* be distinguished from a participial noun of the same form? Illustrate this. 310. When are participles said to be used independently? Of what is a participle so used often the object? Give examples. 311. Recite Rule XIII. 312. In what case is a substantive that is the object of a participle? According to what rule?

according to Rule IV., A substantive that is the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case.—"Leading his soldiers over the Alps, Hannibal entered Italy." "Leading soldiers over the Alps is no easy matter." In each of these sentences, *soldiers* is in the objective case, the object of the participle *leading*.

313. RULE XIV.—A substantive which, in stead of being modified by a participle, is made to modify the latter, is put in the possessive case.

"I saw John writing." Here *John* is the object seen. Hence the noun *John* is in the objective case. The participle *writing* qualifies its meaning, and therefore relates to it. "I was surprised at John's writing so well." Here the *writing so well* is the thing at which I was surprised. The noun is no longer modified by the participle *writing*, but itself modifies the latter by telling whose writing is meant. It is therefore, according to Rule XIV., put in the possessive case—*John's*.

314. PARSING.—The participle, its modifying substantive, and its object, are parsed as follows:—

Every thing depends on the pupil's studying diligently.

Pupil's is a common noun, in the third person, singular number, common gender, possessive case, and modifies the participle *studying*:—*Rule*, A substantive which, in stead of being modified by a participle, is made to modify the latter, is put in the possessive case.

Studying is the present participle active of the intransitive verb *study*, used independently as the object of the preposition *on*:—*Rule*, Participles are used independently, or relate to the substantives whose meaning they qualify or limit.

Having made a code of laws for his countrymen, Lycurgus left Sparta.

Having made is the compound perfect participle active of the transitive verb *make*, and relates to the noun *Lycurgus*:—*Rule*, Participles are used independently, &c.

Code is a common noun, in the third person, singular number, objective case, the object of the participle *having made*:—*Rule*, A substantive that is the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case.

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313. Recite Rule XIV. Show its application in an example. 314. Learn the parsing forms.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and participles:—We can learn much by simply observing and remembering what we see.—Filled with remorse on account of having betrayed his Lord, Judas killed himself.—Having been thrown into the sea, Jonah was swallowed by a great fish.—Bayonets are so called from having been invented at Bayonne, in France.—Arnold, having matured his plans, met Andre near the river, and after arranging matters with him returned to the fort.—Disappointed at not having obtained an interview with the queen, Columbus was about leaving Spain.

LESSON XLV.

AUXILIARIES.—*BE*, *HAVE*.

315. Auxiliaries.—Some tenses of the verb consist of two or more words; as, *have asked*, *shall have asked*. These are called Compound Tenses.

They are formed by joining words known as Auxiliaries to some part of the principal verb. *Auxiliary* signifies *aiding;* and these words are so called because they *aid* in forming the compound tenses.

316. The auxiliaries are *be* in all its tenses, *have* in certain tenses, *do*, *did*, *will*, *shall*, *may*, *can*, *must*, *need*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*.

317. *Parsing.*—In parsing, auxiliaries must be taken with their principal verb, even though other words come between. "Sarah would not have thus deceived me." Parse the words *would have deceived* together, as a transitive verb, in the active voice, potential mood, pluperfect tense, third person, singular number, &c.

318. When several verbs are used in the same construction, the auxiliary is generally expressed with the first and understood with the rest; as,

315. What is meant by Compound Tenses? How are the compound tenses formed? What does *auxiliary* mean? Why are the auxiliaries so called? 316. Mention the auxiliaries. 317. In parsing, how must the auxiliaries be taken? 318. When several verbs are used in the same construction, what is said of the auxiliary? On the other hand, what is sometimes understood? In this case, how must

"I am surprised, grieved, and shocked at your proposal." To repeat the auxiliary [*am* grieved, and *am* shocked] would be inelegant. But *grieved* and *shocked* are to be parsed as if *am* preceded each,—that is, as in the passive voice, indicative mood, present tense, &c.

On the other hand, the principal verb is sometimes understood, and the auxiliary alone expressed; as, "May I go? You *may*." Here parse *may* as an auxiliary used for *may go*, an intransitive verb, in the potential mood, present tense, &c.

319. CONJUGATION.—By the Conjugation of a verb is meant the process of carrying it through its several moods, tenses, persons, and numbers.

To distinguish the persons in conjugating, we prefix the pronouns *I*, *thou*, *he*, in the singular; *we*, *you*, *they*, in the plural. In the subjunctive mood, we prefix the conjunction *if*. These words must be parsed separately from the verb.

320. We shall now consider the auxiliaries in turn.

321. **Be**, in its various parts, is the common verb with which we affirm existence; as, "*Be* happy." "I *am* happy."

Besides appearing as a principal verb, *be* is used in all its parts as an auxiliary.

Combined with the present participle active, it makes the progressive form of the various tenses of the active voice; as, I *am ruling*, I *was ruling*. Combined with the perfect participle passive, it forms the passive tenses; as, I *am ruled*, I *was ruled*.

The verb *be* is conjugated in Lesson XLVIII.

322. **Have** is used both as a principal verb and as an auxiliary. As a principal verb, it is transitive, and may be carried through all the moods and tenses of both voices. As an auxiliary, it is used in the compound perfect participle, and in six tenses, as follows:—

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we parse the auxiliary? 319. What is meant by *conjugating* a verb? How do we distinguish the persons in conjugating? In the subjunctive mood, what do we prefix? 321. What do we affirm with the verb *be*? Besides appearing as a principal verb, how is *be* used? What does it form, when combined with the present participle active? What, when combined with the perfect participle passive? 322. How is *have* used? In what parts is it used as an auxiliary? Of what tense is

INDIC. PERF.—*Have.*	POTEN. PERF.—May *have.*
INDIC. PLU.—*Had.*	POTEN. PLU.—Might *have.*
INDIC. SEC. FU.—Shall *have.*	INFIN. PERF.—To *have.*

323. The first two of these are conjugated thus:—

	Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Person.	1. I have,	We have,	1. I had,	We had,
	2. Thou hast,	You have,	2. Thou hadst,	You had,
	3. He has;	They have.	3. He had;	They had.

324. In solemn style, *have* makes *hath* in the third singular; as, "He *hath* offended God."

EXERCISE.

Insert verbs in compound tenses, and state the mood and tense of each:—The Spanish Moors —— to have invented steel needles. The first settlers of America —— Behring's Strait. Brick-making is said —— one of the earliest arts. The Chinese —— acquainted with the mariner's compass before it —— in Europe. You —— that I was rude, but I assure you no offence was intended. Had he not known how to swim, he ——. In some countries, forgers —— for life. The boiler exploded, and many passengers ——.

LESSON XLVI.

THE AUXILIARIES *DO, DID, WILL, SHALL.*

325. **Do** and **did** are used both as principal verbs and as auxiliaries. *Do* appears as an auxiliary in the present tense of the indicative, subjunctive, and imperative; *did* in the imperfect, indicative and subjunctive.

326. In the subjunctive mood, these auxiliaries remain unchanged. In the indicative, they are conjugated thus:—

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have the auxiliary? *Had?* 323. Carry *have* through its persons and numbers. Do the same with *had.* 324. In solemn style, what does *have* make in the third singular?

325. How are *do* and *did* used? In what parts of the verb does *do* appear as an auxiliary? In what, *did?* 326. Conjugate *do* and *did* in the subjunctive mood.

	Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Person.	1. I do,	We do,	1. I did,	We did,
	2. Thou dost,	You do,	2. Thou didst,	You did,
	3. He does;	They do.	3. He did;	They did.

327. As a principal verb, *do* makes *doëst* or *dost* [pronounced *dust*] in the second singular, and *doëth* or *doth* [*duth*] in the solemn form of the third singular. As an auxiliary, it makes *dost* alone in the second singular, and *doth* in the solemn form of the third. "Thou *doëst*, *dost*, wonders; he *doëth*, *doth* miracles:" BUT "Thou *dost* not speak; *doth* he not hear?"

328. **Will** is used as a principal verb, and also as an auxiliary in the future tenses. It is differently conjugated, according to its use. Thus:—

	PRINCIPAL VERB.		AUXILIARY.	
Person.	1. I will,	We will,	1. I will,	We will,
	2. Thou willest,	You will,	2. Thou wilt,	You will,
	3. He wills;	They will.	3. He will;	They will.

329. **Shall**, like *will*, appears as an auxiliary in the future tenses. It is thus conjugated:—

Singular.—I shall, thou shalt, he shall;
Plural.—We shall, you shall, they shall.

330. FORCE OF *WILL* AND *SHALL*.—We saw in § 255 that the first future implies, 1. Future time simply. 2. Determination.

When future time simply is implied, *shall* is used as the auxiliary in the first person, and *will* in the second and third. *I shall, thou wilt, he will; We shall, you will, they will.*

When determination is implied, *will* is used in the first person, *shall* in the second and third. *I will, thou shalt, he shall; We will, you shall, they shall.*

In the indicative. 327. What differences are there in the conjugation of *do* as a principal verb and as an auxiliary? 328. How is *will* used? Conjugate *will* as a principal verb. Conjugate it as an auxiliary. 329. In what tenses does *shall* appear as an auxiliary? Conjugate *shall*. 330. What does the first future tense imply? Go through the first future tense, when future time simply is implied. Go through the first future, when determination is implied. When determination is

In this latter form, the speaker declares his determination, in the first person about himself; in the second, about the person spoken to; in the third, about the person or thing spoken of. A promise or threat may therefore be conveyed. Thus:—"I *will* go, if I perish in the attempt [it is my determination]." "You *shall* have what you want [it is my determination—promise]." "He *shall* suffer for this insult [it is my determination—threat]."

331. *Will* emphasized in the second and the third person implies determination in the person spoken to or of, respecting his own acts; as, "He *will* go [he is determined to do so]." "They *will* not repent [they are determined not to do so]."

332. In questions, *shall* and *will* have a different force.

Shall, in the first person, asks for advice; "Shall I go?" In the second person, it denotes futurity simply; "Shall you go?" In the third person, it asks for the determination of the person addressed respecting some person or thing spoken of. "Shall this man rule over us [is it your determination]?"

On the other hand, *will* in all three persons implies simple futurity; "Will I, you, he, be in time?" In the second and the third person, it also sometimes asks for the determination of the person spoken to or of; as, "Will you accept my invitation?"

333. *Will* sometimes expresses merely what is habitual; as, "He *will* sit and read for hours [he is in the habit of doing so]."

EXERCISE.

Correct the auxiliaries:—Dŏest thou not see thy danger?—He doĕth not walk safely, that walks in the paths of sin.—Thou shalst not steal.—To whom will we flee for aid?—I will drown! Shall nobody save me?—Shall he not have departed?—Wilst thou not stay?—No matter who is present, I shall state my views.

Supply the proper auxiliary:—I expect that I [*will* or *shall?*] see my father.—I have resolved that I [*will* or *shall?*] rise early.—[*Will* or *shall?*] it be right to let this go on?—We [*will* or *shall?*] next proceed to treat of Optics.—He [*will* or *shall?*] suc-

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implied, respecting what is it exercised in the different persons? What, therefore, may be conveyed? Give examples. 331. What does *will* emphasized in the second and the third person imply? 332. In questions, what is the force of *shall* in the several persons? Of *will*? 333. What does *will* sometimes express?

ceed, if industry is worth any thing.—We [*will* or *shall?*] have left before you arrive.—By the time winter sets in, they [*will* or *shall?*] have taken their departure.

LESSON XLVII.

THE AUXILIARIES *MAY, CAN, MUST, NEED, MIGHT, COULD, WOULD, SHOULD.*

334. **May, can, must,** and **need,** are auxiliaries of the present potential. They are thus conjugated:—

Singular.	*Plural.*
I may, thou mayst (mayest), he may;	We may, you may, they may.
I can, thou canst, he can;	We can, you can, they can.
I must, thou must, he must;	We must, you must, they must.
I need, thou needst (est), he need;	We need, you need, they need.

335. These auxiliaries followed by *have* (*may have*, &c.) indicate the perfect potential.

336. *Need* is also used as a principal verb; as, "We all need pardon."

337. As an auxiliary, *need* remains unchanged in the third, singular. As a principal verb, it becomes *needs*, or in solemn style *needeth;* and another verb limiting its meaning is put in the infinitive. Dr. Johnson says, "He that can swim, need not despair." Here *need* is an auxiliary, and *need despair* is in the present potential. Shakspeare says, "I need not to advise you further." Here *need* is a principal verb in the present indicative, modified by the infinitive *to advise.* Both constructions are authorized, but the former is the more common.

338. **Might, could, would,** and **should,** are auxiliaries of the imperfect potential. They are conjugated thus:—

Singular.	*Plural.*
I might, thou mightst (est), he might;	We might, you might, they might.
I could, thou couldst (est), he could;	We could, you could, they could.
I would, thou wouldst (est), he would;	We would, you would, they would.
I should, thou shouldst (est), he should;	We should, you should, they should.

334. Of what tense are *may, can, must,* and *need* the auxiliaries? Conjugate *may; can; must; need.* 335. What tense is indicated by these auxiliaries followed by *have?* 336. How is *need* also used? 337. What difference is there in the conjugation of *need* as a principal verb and as an auxiliary? Give an example of two equivalent constructions with *need.* 338. Of what tense are *might, could,*

339. These auxiliaries followed by *have* (*might have*, &c.) indicate the pluperfect potential.

340. In subjoined clauses, after a verb in the imperfect tense, *would* and *should* are used with the same difference of meaning for the different persons as *will* and *shall* (§ 330). Thus:—

Futurity.—I said I *should* go. I told you it *would* not rain.

Determination.—I said I *would* go. I told you she *should* not go.

341. *Would* is sometimes used to denote what was habitual; as, "He *would* sit and read for hours."

342. *Would* is sometimes, but very rarely, used as a principal verb. Thus, in the Psalms, "Israel *would* none of me."

343. Observe that when *be*, *have*, *do*, *will*, *need*, and *would*, are combined with a participle or any other part of a principal verb, they are auxiliaries. When not so combined, they are principal verbs.

Auxiliaries.—He *is* amusing the children. Cæsar *was* loved. I *do* not want to *be* robbed. They *have* pitied us. *Do* look. Save her, *do*. *Does* He not help those whom He *will* save. Nothing *need* be said. Who *would* be a slanderer?

Principal Verbs.—That story *is* amusing. Cæsar *was* ambitious. *Have* pity on us. They crossed the river, as they intended to *do*. Industry *does* wonders. He saves those whom He *wills* to save. A workman that *needeth* not to be ashamed. They *would* none of my reproof.

EXERCISE.

Correct the auxiliaries:—Can I leave the room?—May thou be happy!—Men will not listen, that they might save their souls.—No person needs blush when he has done his best.—He cried out in terror that he should drown, nobody should help him.—Can he not have started?—I promised that he would be allowed to return —Can thou not regulate thine own conduct?—Helen promised

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would, and *should* the auxiliaries? Conjugate *might*; *could*; *would*; *should*. 339. What tense is indicated by these auxiliaries followed by *have*? 340. How are *would* and *should* used in subjoined clauses? 341. What is *would* sometimes used to denote? 342. How is *would* sometimes used? 343. Which of the auxiliaries are also used as principal verbs? How can it be told whether these words are auxiliaries or principal verbs? Give examples.

that she might write to-morrow.—Thou need not have taken such pains with it.—A prize was offered to him who would write the best composition.

LESSON XLVIII.

THE VERB *BE*.

344. The intransitive verb *be* is conjugated thus:—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Person.	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1.	I am,	We are,
2.	Thou art,	You are,
3.	He is;	They are.

Imperfect Tense.

1. I was,	1. We were,
2. Thou wast *or* wert,	2. You were,
3. He was;	3. They were.

Perfect Tense.

1. I have been,	1. We have been,
2. Thou hast been,	2. You have been,
3. He has been;	3. They have been.

Pluperfect Tense.

1. I had been,	1. We had been,
2. Thou hadst been,	2. You had been,
3. He had been;	3. They had been.

First Future Tense.

1. I shall *or* will be,	1. We shall *or* will be,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt be,	2. You shall *or* will be,
3. He shall *or* will be;	3. They shall *or* will be.

Second Future Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall *or* will have been,	1. We shall *or* will have been,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have been,	2. You shall *or* will have been,
3. He shall *or* will have been;	3. They shall *or* will have been.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. I may, can, must, *or* need be,	1. We may, can, must, *or* need be,
2. Thou mayst, canst,* &c., be,	2. You may, can, must, *or* need be,
3. He may, can, must, *or* need be;	3. They may, can, must, *or* need be.

Imperfect Tense.

1. I might, could, would, *or* should be,	1. We might, could, would, *or* should be,
2. Thou mightst, couldst, &c., be,	2. You might, could, &c., be,
3. He might, could, &c., be;	3. They might, could, &c., be.

Perfect Tense.

1. I may, can, must, *or* need have been,	1. We may, can, must, *or* need have been,
2. Thou mayst, &c., have been,	2. You may, &c., have been,
3. He may, &c., have been;	3. They may, &c., have been.

Pluperfect Tense.

1. I might, could, would, *or* should have been,	1. We might, could, would, *or* should have been,
2. Thou mightst, &c., have been,	2. You might, &c., have been,
3. He might, &c., have been;	3. They might, &c., have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. If I be,	1. If we be,
2. If thou be,	2. If you be,
3. If he be;	3. If they be.

* In reciting, always give all the auxiliaries—*Thou mayst, canst, must,* or *needst be.*

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I were,	1. If we were,
2. If thou were,	2. If you were,
3. If he were;	3. If they were.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. Be I,	1. Be we,
2. Be thou *or* do thou be,	2. Be you *or* do you be,
3. Be he;	3. Be they.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To be. *Perfect Tense.* To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being. *Perfect.* Been. *Compound Perfect.* Having been.

345. REMARKS.—Besides the forms given above in the present indicative, we find the following used by old writers:—*I be, thou beest, he be; we be, you be, they be.* "We *be* twelve brethren."—*Genesis, chap.* 42. "I think it *be* thine indeed."—*Shakspeare.* These forms are obsolete, and should not now be used.

346. *Were* is sometimes used for *would be*, and must then be parsed as in the potential imperfect; as, "It *were* impossible to tell thee all I feel."

347. The conjunction *if* is sometimes omitted before the pluperfect indicative, and the present and imperfect subjunctive. In this case, the verb or its auxiliary is placed before the subject; as, "Had Cæsar been prudent, he would have paused [for *if Cæsar had been*]." "Be it [*if it be*] a ghost, I care not." "Were all Christians [*if all Christians were*] in earnest, what glorious results would be achieved!"

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns, pronouns, articles, adjectives, and verbs:—All men are mortal.—We must be cautious.—Had King Richard been

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345. What obsolete form of the present indicative do we find in old writers? 346. For what is *were* sometimes used? How must it then be parsed? 347. What is said with regard to the omission of the conjunction *if*?

a lion, he could not have been braver.—Be we contented.—God be gracious unto thee, my son!—The world will be wiser than it has ever been.—If you be mistaken, we shall all be wretched.—To be truly happy is the great end of life.—Having been there, I am certain this is the way.

LESSON XLIX.

CONJUGATION OF A TRANSITIVE VERB IN THE ACTIVE VOICE.

348. The verb RULE, which will serve as an example of all transitive verbs, is thus conjugated in the active voice:—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I rule *or* do rule,	1. We rule *or* do rule,
2. Thou rulest *or* dost rule,	2. You rule *or* do rule,
3. He rules *or* does rule;	3. They rule *or* do rule.

Imperfect Tense.

1. I ruled *or* did rule,	1. We ruled *or* did rule,
2. Thou ruledst *or* didst rule,	2. You ruled *or* did rule,
3. He ruled *or* did rule;	3. They ruled *or* did rule.

Perfect Tense.

1. I have ruled,	1. We have ruled,
2. Thou hast ruled,	2. You have ruled,
3. He has ruled;	3. They have ruled.

Pluperfect Tense.

1. I had ruled,	1. We had ruled,
2. Thou hadst ruled,	2. You had ruled,
3. He had ruled;	3. They had ruled.

First Future Tense.

1. I shall *or* will rule,	1. We shall *or* will rule,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt rule,	2. You shall *or* will rule,
3. He shall *or* will rule;	3. They shall *or* will rule.

Second Future Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall *or* will have ruled,	1. We shall *or* will have ruled,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have ruled,	2. You shall *or* will have ruled,
3 He shall *or* will have ruled;	3. They shall *or* will have ruled.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. I may, can, must, *or* need rule,	1. We may, can, must, *or* need rule,
2. Thou mayst, canst, &c., rule,	2. You may, can, &c., rule,
3. He may, can, &c., rule;	3. They may, can, &c., rule.

Imperfect Tense.

1. I might, could, would, *or* should rule,	1. We might, could, would, *or* should rule,
2. Thou mightst, &c., rule,	2. You might, &c., rule,
3. He might, &c., rule;	3. They might, &c., rule.

Perfect Tense.

1. I may, can, must, *or* need have ruled,	1. We may, can, must, *or* need have ruled,
2. Thou mayst, &c., have ruled,	2. You may, &c., have ruled,
3. He may, &c., have ruled;	3. They may, &c., have ruled.

Pluperfect Tense.

1. I might, could, would, *or* should have ruled,	1. We might, could, would, *or* should have ruled,
2. Thou mightst, &c., have ruled,	2. You might, &c., have ruled,
3. He might, &c., have ruled;	3. They might, &c., have ruled.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. If I rule *or* do rule,	1. If we rule *or* do rule,
2. If thou rule *or* do rule,	2. If you rule *or* do rule,
3. If he rule *or* do rule;	3. If they rule *or* do rule.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I ruled *or* did rule,	1. If we ruled *or* did rule,
2. If thou ruled *or* did rule,	2. If you ruled *or* did rule,
3. If he ruled *or* did rule;	3. If they ruled *or* did rule.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. Rule I,	1. Rule we,
2. Rule thou *or* do thou rule,	2. Rule you *or* do you rule,
3. Rule he;	3. Rule they.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To rule. *Perfect Tense.* To have ruled.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Ruling. *Perfect.* Ruled. *Comp. Perfect.* Having ruled.

349. REMARKS.—Except in solemn and poetical style, the second person plural of the verb is used in addressing a single person, in stead of the second singular. In conversation we say *you rule*, not *thou rulest*, though but one person is referred to; but in prayer or poetry we say *thou rulest*.

350. In the third person singular of the present indicative, there is a solemn form ending in *th*; as, he *ruleth*.

351. The compound forms of the present and imperfect indicative, containing *do* and *did*, are properly used when a negation is expressed or emphasis is required; as, "'You *do* not *love* me.' 'I *do love* you.'" "He says I *did* not *go*, but I *did go*."—When there is no emphasis or negation, the simple form is to be preferred as stronger. "We *beseech* thee," not "we *do beseech* thee."

352. To avoid a disagreeable combination of consonants, the termination *st* is sometimes omitted by good writers in the second person singular of the imperfect indicative. Thus Pollok says, *thou conquered*, *thou came*, *thou noticed*, *thou lifted*. So Pope:—*thou who touched; thy word who knew no wish*. The regular form, however, is more used, and therefore to be preferred.

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349. In what number do we commonly use the verb when we address a single person? 350. Give the solemn form of the present indicative in the third person. 351. When is it proper to use the compound forms of the present and imperfect indicative? 352. In what part is *st* omitted by some writers? Why? Which

353. In the imperative mood, most grammars give only the second person. But all three persons are found in standard writers, and may be used when occasion requires. FIRST PERSON. "Cursed *be* I that did so." —*Shakspeare.* "*Proceed* we therefore."—*Pope.* THIRD PERSON. "Thy will *be done*."—*Bible.* "*Be* it *known*."

EXERCISE.

Supply verbs, and parse the nouns, pronouns, and verbs in the sentences thus completed:—Strike while the iron — hot. Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, — it with thy might. The bittern — in desolate places. The day may — when justice will triumph. Having thus deceived the enemy, Washington — to Princeton. If the climate of Africa — not so fatal, more travellers — there. In stead of oppressing his subjects, Nero might greatly have benefited them, if he — to — so. A French officer, on visiting the mother of Washington, —: "No wonder America has — such a leader, since he — such a mother!"

LESSON L.

CONJUGATION OF A TRANSITIVE VERB IN THE PASSIVE VOICE.

354. The various parts of the passive voice are formed by combining the perfect participle with the corresponding parts of the auxiliary *be*. All transitive verbs are conjugated in the passive voice according to the following model:—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I am ruled,	1. We are ruled,
2. Thou art ruled,	2. You are ruled,
3. He is ruled;	3. They are ruled.

form is to be preferred? 353. Give some examples showing that all three persons are found in the imperative mood.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I was ruled,	1. We were ruled,
2. Thou wast *or* wert ruled,	2. You were ruled,
3. He was ruled;	3. They were ruled.

Perfect Tense.

1. I have been ruled,	1. We have been ruled,
2. Thou hast been ruled,	2. You have been ruled,
3. He has been ruled;	3. They have been ruled.

Pluperfect Tense.

1. I had been ruled,	1. We had been ruled,
2. Thou hadst been ruled,	2. You had been ruled,
3. He had been ruled;	3. They had been ruled.

First Future Tense.

1. I shall *or* will be ruled,	1. We shall *or* will be ruled,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt be ruled,	2. You shall *or* will be ruled,
3. He shall *or* will be ruled;	3. They shall *or* will be ruled.

Second Future Tense.

1. I shall *or* will have been ruled,	1. We shall *or* will have been ruled,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have been ruled,	2. You shall *or* will have been ruled,
3. He shall *or* will have been ruled;	3. They shall *or* will have been ruled.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. I may, can, must, *or* need be ruled,	1. We may, can, must, *or* need be ruled,
2. Thou mayst, &c., be ruled,	2. You may, &c., be ruled,
3. He may, &c., be ruled;	3. They may, &c., be ruled.

Imperfect Tense.

1. I might, could, would, *or* should be ruled,	1. We might, could, would, *or* should be ruled,
2. Thou mightst, &c., be ruled,	2. You might, &c., be ruled,
3. He might, &c., be ruled;	3. They might, &c., be ruled.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I may, can, must, *or* need have been ruled,	1. We may, can, must, *or* need have been ruled,
2. Thou mayst, canst, must, *or* needst have been ruled,	2. You may, can, must, *or* need have been ruled,
3. He may, can, must, *or* need have been ruled;	3. They may, can, must, *or* need have been ruled.

Pluperfect Tense.

1. I might, could, would, *or* should have been ruled,	1. We might, could, would, *or* should have been ruled,
2. Thou mightst, &c., have been ruled,	2. You might, &c., have been ruled,
3. He might, &c., have been ruled;	3. They might, &c., have been ruled.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. If I be ruled,	1. If we be ruled,
2. If thou be ruled,	2. If you be ruled,
3. If he be ruled;	3. If they be ruled.

Imperfect Tense.

1. If I were ruled,	1. If we were ruled,
2. If thou were ruled,	2. If you were ruled,
3. If he were ruled;	3. If they were ruled.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. Be I ruled,	1. Be we ruled,
2. Be thou *or* do thou be ruled,	2. Be you *or* do you be ruled,
3. Be he ruled;	3. Be they ruled.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To be ruled. *Perfect Tense.* To have been ruled.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being ruled. *Perfect.* Ruled.
Comp. Perfect. Having been ruled.

355. Some verbs, besides the regular present participle passive given above, have their participle in *ing* used with a passive meaning; as, the houses now *erecting*, a book now *publishing* in numbers. Parse a participle in *ing* thus used as the present participle passive.

356. CAUTIONS.—In old writers we sometimes find the perfect of certain intransitive verbs formed with *am* in stead of *have*, and the pluperfect with *was* in stead of *had*. Thus:—Winter *is* [has] come; they *are* [have] arrived; when they *were* [had] gone; happiness *was* [had] flown. These forms are now rarely used, and should be avoided. Do not take them for passive tenses, which they resemble, but parse thus: *Is come* is an intransitive verb, used for *has come;* in the indicative mood, perfect tense, &c.

357. We have seen (§ 308) that there are some adjectives identical in form with participles. Do not, therefore, confound the verb *be* followed by such an adjective, with a passive compound tense. Observe the difference in the following examples:—

Verb BE *and adjective.*—I *am obliged* to you. You *are mistaken.* She *is accomplished.* He *is resolved* to go. I *am inclined* to remain.

Transitive verb in the passive voice.—I *am obliged* to return. Sometimes hypocrites *are mistaken* for pious men. The deed *is accomplished.* Water *is resolved* into its elements. My body *is inclined* by years.

358. CHANGE OF CONSTRUCTION.—A sentence containing a verb in the active voice may often be converted into an equivalent one containing a verb in the passive. Thus:—"Cæsar invaded Britain." Make three changes. 1. Change the active verb *invaded* to the same part of the passive voice, *was invaded.* 2. Take the object *Britain* for the subject of the passive verb, *Britain was invaded.* 3. Introduce the preposition *by* after the passive verb with the former subject *Cæsar* for its object, *Britain was invaded by Cæsar.*

EXERCISE.

Correct the following sentences (*see* § 356), *and mention the mood and tense of each verb:*—What is become of your father?—Samuel is grown out of my recollection.—The Jews were de-

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355. How do some verbs have their participle in *ing* used? When so used, how is this participle to be parsed? 356. How do we sometimes find the perfect of certain intransitive verbs formed? Give examples. What is said of such forms? Show how to parse them. 357. With what is there danger of confounding the verb *be* followed by an adjective? Give examples showing the difference. 358. Into what may a sentence containing a verb in the active voice often be converted? Enumerate the changes to be made.

parted out of the land.—The strife is ceased.—He was not yet descended from Heaven.—Cold weather was already set in.—The spectre was vanished.

Parse the nouns, adjectives, and verbs (see § 357):—Most persons are ashamed to confess that they have been imposed upon (*see* § 239).—Demosthenes was bent on defeating King Philip's ambitious designs.—We are indebted to Newton for some most important discoveries in Optics.—Free countries are generally enlightened.—It is proved that the earth's axis is inclined to the plane of its orbit.

Change these sentences to equivalent ones containing a passive verb (see § 358):—Crocodiles inhabit the Nile.—Wm. Penn founded Philadelphia.—Men have turned steam to great account.—Burgoyne had already invaded New York.—You must conquer all evil passions.—This news will surprise our neighbors.—All good men should abhor a tyrant.—Wine must have overthrown Alexander's reason.

LESSON LI.

PROGRESSIVE FORM OF THE VERB.

359. Some verbs denote an action or state, in which, from its very nature, continuance is implied; as, I *love*, I *remember*. Others affirm an action or state without reference to its continuance; as, I *rule*, I *speak*.

Verbs of the latter class have a distinct form which is to be used when the idea of continuance is to be prominently conveyed. It is called the Progressive Form, and is made by combining the participle in *ing* with the various parts of the auxiliary *be*, as follows. Recite all the persons in both numbers.

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359. As regards continuance, what difference is there in the signification of verbs? What verbs have a distinct form to imply continuance? What is it called? How is it formed?

PROGRESSIVE FORM.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT.—I am ruling, thou art ruling, &c.
IMPERFECT.—I was ruling, thou wast *or* wert ruling, &c.
PERFECT.—I have been ruling, thou hast been ruling, &c.
PLUPERFECT.—I had been ruling, thou hadst been ruling, &c.
FIRST FUTURE.—I shall *or* will be ruling, thou shalt *or* wilt, &c.
SECOND FUTURE.—I shall *or* will have been ruling, &c.

Potential Mood.

PRESENT.—I may, can, must, *or* need be ruling.
IMPERFECT.—I might, could, would, *or* should be ruling.
PERFECT.—I may, can, must, *or* need have been ruling.
PLUPERFECT.—I might, could, would, *or* should have been ruling.

Subjunctive Mood.

PRESENT.—If I be ruling, if thou be ruling, &c.
IMPERFECT.—If I were ruling, if thou were ruling, &c.

Imperative Mood.

PRESENT.—Be thou ruling *or* do thou be ruling, &c.

Infinitive Mood.

PRESENT.—To be ruling. PERFECT.—To have been ruling.

Participles.

PRESENT.—Ruling. COMP. PERFECT.—Having been ruling.

360. REMARKS.—Verbs whose simple form denotes continuance, have no progressive form. Such expressions as *I am loving you*, *I was remembering my friends*, are not good English.

361. All the parts of the progressive form given above are used with an active signification; and in the first and second person they are only so used. But we have seen (§ 355) that, in the case of some verbs, the participle in *ing* has a passive as well as an active meaning; and in these the *third person* of the progressive form is also used passively. "Houses

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360. What verbs have no progressive form? 361. What signification have all the parts of the progressive form just given? What different signification has the

are rapidly *erecting*." "The book *is publishing* in numbers." "Addison's works *were reprinting*."

362. In the present and imperfect indicative passive, another progressive form is used, though it is less elegant than the one given above. It is formed by combining the present participle passive with *am* and *was*, carried through their several persons and numbers; as, "Houses *are being erected*." "The will of Heaven *was being accomplished*." This form it is best to avoid. Use the other form in stead, or change the entire expression: "Houses *are in course of erection*." "The will of Heaven *was undergoing its accomplishment*."

When the progressive form of a verb used with a certain subject is susceptible of an active meaning, it must be used only with that meaning. Thus we must not say *the Christians were persecuting*, unless we mean that they persecuted others. If we mean they were persecuted themselves, in stead of this form or the one mentioned in the last paragraph (*the Christians were being persecuted*), we use some equivalent expression, such as *the Christians were undergoing persecution.*

363. PARSING.—When a verb is in the progressive form, state it in parsing after mentioning the number. To determine whether it is in the active or passive voice, see whether it represents its subject as acting or acted upon.

I am reading. These things were transacting in America.

Am reading is an intransitive verb, in the indicative mood, present tense, first person, singular number, progressive form, and agrees with its subject *I*:—*Rule*, A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

Were transacting is a transitive verb, in the passive voice, indicative mood, imperfect tense, third person, plural number, progressive form, and agrees, &c.

EXERCISE.

Correct the following sentences by changing the verbs from the progressive to the common form:—All men are loving truth.—No

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third person of this form in certain verbs? Give examples. 362. What other progressive form is used in the present and imperfect indicative passive? What is said with respect to this form? When must the progressive form of a verb be used only with an active meaning? If, in such a case, we wish to convey a passive meaning with the idea of continuance, how must it be done? 363. How is a verb

one was esteeming him.—We shall be seeing what will happen.—I can not be disliking her.—We must be remaining till to-morrow.—She asked me not to be forgetting her.—If thou were wishing to help me, thou couldst easily do it.

Change the verbs to the corresponding progressive form, and then parse them:—The wind blows.—The storm raged.—I will wait for you.—He must have dined.—Do you write?—Efforts are made.—The poor must suffer.—I had listened to an opera.—A civil war was waged.—A canal was dug.—The criminal is punished.—Did he enjoy himself?—James may have talked to my brother.—A report is circulated.—I shall visit in Washington next week.

LESSON LII.

NEGATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE CONJUGATIONS.

364. NEGATIVE CONJUGATION.—The meaning of a verb is made negative by joining to it the adverb *not*.

365. In the infinitive mood and the participles, *not* precedes the verb: as, *not to rule, not to have ruled; not ruling, not having ruled.* So in the passive voice: *not to be ruled, not to have been ruled; not being ruled, not ruled, not having been ruled.*

In the other parts, if the tense is simple, *not* must be placed after the verb; and, if compound, after the first auxiliary; as, *I rule not, I shall not be ruled.*

366. Go through the negative conjugation, forming the tenses in order, as follows:—

INDICATIVE.—*Present.* I rule not *or* do not rule,
Thou rulest not *or* dost not rule, &c.
Imperfect. I ruled not *or* did not rule.
Perfect. I have not ruled, &c.

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in the progressive form to be parsed? How can it be determined whether it is in the active or passive voice? Learn the parsing form.

364. How is the meaning of a verb made negative? 365. What is the position of the adverb *not*, in the infinitive mood and the participles? What, in the other parts? 366. Go through the active voice of the verb *rule*, conjugated negatively.

So in the passive voice:—I am not ruled, I was not ruled, I have not been ruled, I had not been ruled, &c.

So in the progressive form:—I am not ruling, I was not ruling, I have not been ruling, I had not been ruling, &c.

367. *Contractions.*—In conversation, the auxiliary and *not* following it are often contracted. Hence arise such forms as *don't*, *didn't*, *havn't*, *han't*, *hadn't*, *won't*, *shan't*, *mayn't*, &c. These contractions are inadmissible in dignified composition. If they occur in parsing, treat them thus:—"Don't laugh." *Don't* is a contraction for *do not*. *Do laugh* is an intransitive verb, &c. *Not* is an adverb.

368. INTERROGATIVE CONJUGATION.—A verb is said to be used interrogatively when a question is asked with it; as, "*Rulest* thou?" "*Dost* thou *rule?*" In this case, the subject, in stead of being placed before the verb, is placed after it if the tense is simple, and after the first auxiliary if the tense is compound.

369. The indicative and the potential mood only can be used interrogatively. Go through the tenses, commencing thus:—

INDICATIVE.—*Present.* Rule I *or* do I rule? Rulest thou *or* dost thou rule? &c.

Imperfect. Ruled I *or* did I rule? Ruledst thou *or* didst thou rule? &c.

Perfect. Have I ruled? Hast thou ruled? &c.

So in the passive voice:—Am I ruled? Was I ruled? &c.

So in the progressive form:—Am I ruling? Was I ruling? &c.

370. NEGATIVE-INTERROGATIVE CONJUGATION.—The interrogative conjugation is made negative by placing the adverb *not* immediately after the subject.

371. Go through the tenses, commencing thus:—

The passive voice. The progressive form. 367. What contractions are frequently made in conversation? What is said of the use of these contractions in composition? Give an example of the mode of parsing them. 368. When is a verb said to be used interrogatively? When it is thus used, where does its subject stand? 369. What moods alone are used interrogatively? Conjugate the active voice of the verb *rule* interrogatively. The passive voice. The progressive form. 370. How is the interrogative conjugation made negative? 371. Give the active voice of the

INDICATIVE.—*Present.* Rule I not *or* do I not rule?
Imperfect. Ruled I not *or* did I not rule?
Perfect. Have I not ruled? &c.

So in the passive voice:—Am I not ruled? Was I not ruled? Have I not been ruled? Had I not been ruled? &c.

So in the progressive form:—Am I not ruling? Was I not ruling? Have I not been ruling? Had I not been ruling? &c.

372. The adverb *not* is sometimes placed before the subject; as, "Have not I entreated thee?" "Did not they insult me?"

373. The interrogative form of the verb is used, when we ask simply for information and are in doubt whether the answer will be *yes* or *no*. The negative-interrogative form is used when we expect the answer *yes*. If I am uncertain whether you are going to a certain place, I ask, "Are you going?" If I think you intend to go or ought to do so, I ask, "Are you *not* going?"

374. In the present and imperfect indicative of the above conjugations, there are two forms. Of these, the compound forms containing *do* and *did* are the ones commonly used; the simple forms appear only in solemn style or poetry.

Common Form.—Do you not know? Did you hear those loud contending notes? Did I not speak to you?

Solemn and Poetical Form.—Know ye not? Heard ye those loud contending notes? Spake I not unto thee?

EXERCISE.

Change the verbs successively to the corresponding tense of the progressive, negative, interrogative, and negative-interrogative form. Thus:—

He smiles. { *Progressive.*—He is smiling. / *Negative.*—He does not smile. / *Interrogative.*—Does he smile? / *Negative-interrogative.*—Does he not smile?

She laughed. You have called him.
Jane looks well. Lawyers make money.
Thou hast written. You deceive yourself.

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verb *rule*, according to the negative-interrogative conjugation. The passive voice. The progressive form. 372. Where is the adverb *not* sometimes placed? 373. When is the interrogative form of the verb used, and when the negative-interrogative? 374. In these conjugations, which is the common form of the present and imperfect indicative? Where alone do the simple forms appear? Give examples.

Cæsar overran Gaul.	He will suffer torture.
Some birds sing.	You had walked rapidly.
They may wait.	He might have watched.
Thou must go.	They would make trouble.

LESSON LIII.

VERBS DISTINGUISHED AS REGULAR AND IRREGULAR.

375. *Root of the Verb.*—The present infinitive active without its sign *to*, is the Root of the verb. The first person singular of the present indicative, subjunctive, and imperative, has the same form as the root; as, to *rule*, I *rule*, if I *rule*, *rule* I.

The verb *be* is the only exception to this rule. It makes *I am*, not *I be*, in the present indicative, though it forms its present subjunctive and imperative regularly, *if I be*, *be I*.

376. The present active participle is formed by adding *ing* to the root, making such changes in the latter as may be required by the rules of spelling: as, *land*, *land*ing; *be*, *be*ing; *rule*, *rul*ing; pin, *pinn*ing; *permit*, *permitt*ing.

377. *Formation of the Compound Tenses.*—The root of the verb is combined with auxiliaries in the following compound tenses of the active voice:—

Indicative and Subjunctive Present.—I do *rule*.
Indicative and Subjunctive Imperfect.—I did *rule*.
Indicative Future.—I shall or will *rule*, *be*.
Potential Present.—I may, can, must, or need *rule*, *be*.
Potential Imperfect.—I might, could, would, or should *rule*, *be*.
Imperative Present.—Do thou *rule*.

The other compound tenses of the active voice are

375. What is the Root of the verb? What parts of the verb have the same form as the root? What exception is there to this rule? 376. How is the present active participle formed? 377. Which of the compound tenses are formed by combining the root of the verb with auxiliaries? How are the other compound

formed by combining the perfect or present participle with auxiliaries; as, I have *ruled*, I have been *ruling*.

378. *Chief Parts of the Verb.*—With the root and the perfect participle of a verb, then, we can form all its compound tenses. If, together with these, we know the imperfect indicative (with which, except in the verb *be*, the simple form of the imperfect subjunctive corresponds) we can conjugate the verb throughout.

The root, the imperfect indicative, and the perfect participle, are therefore called the Chief Parts of the verb.

379. *Verbs distinguished as Regular and Irregular.*—The imperfect indicative and the perfect participle of most verbs are formed by adding *ed* to the root. Thus:—Warm, warm*ed*, warm*ed*; laud, laud*ed*, laud*ed*.

380. When *ed* is added, changes may be required in the root by the rules of spelling (page 20). Thus:—Final *e* of the root is rejected; as, rule, rul-ed, rul-ed.

When the root is a monosyllable or is accented on the last syllable, its final consonant, if preceded by a single vowel, is doubled: as, stir, stirred, stirred; bestir', bestirred, bestirred.

Final *y* of the root, if preceded by a consonant, is changed to *i*; as, ply, plied, plied.

381. Verbs that have but one form for the imperfect indicative and perfect participle, made by adding *ed* to the root, are called Regular. *Warm, warmed, warned*, is a regular verb.

Verbs that have more than one form for the imperfect indicative or perfect participle, or that do not add *ed* to the root to form these parts, are called Irregular.

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tenses of the active voice formed? 378. With what three parts given can we conjugate a verb throughout? What are these three parts called? 379. How are the imperfect indicative and the perfect participle of most verbs formed? 380. When *ed* is added, what changes may be required in the root? 381. What verbs are called Regular? What verbs are Irregular? Give examples of both. 382. Learn the parsing form.

Awake, *awoke* or *awaked*, *awoke* or *awaked*,—*be*, *was*, *been*,—are irregular verbs.

382. PARSING.—In parsing a verb, state whether it is regular or irregular, and, if it is irregular, mention its three chief parts, in the following order :—

"Warm your hands." **Warm** is a regular transitive verb, in the active voice, imperative mood, &c.

"He has been imprudent." **Has been** is an irregular intransitive verb; from *be*, *was*, *been;* in the indicative mood, perfect tense, &c.

EXERCISE.

Write out or spell the three chief parts of the following regular verbs, making, when necessary, the changes in the root mentioned in § 380 :—Grant; heat; tattoo; fan; fawn; smile; root; rot; hop; hope; hoop; row; ply; play; extol; profit; harass; halloo; benefit; compromit; hamper; deter; occur; destroy; separate; bury; file; fill; justify; dismay; tremble; complain; saunter; journey; command; woo; transfer · hurrah.

TABLE OF PRIMITIVE IRREGULAR VERBS.

383. The chief parts of the primitive irregular verbs are presented below.

Derivative and compound verbs follow their primitives, and therefore they are not given separately in the Table. Thus *overtake* and *undertake* form their chief parts like their primitive *take: overtake*, *overtook*, *overtaken; undertake*, *undertook*, *undertaken*.

Some verbs, besides their irregular form, have a regular one in *ed*. This is denoted in the Table by the letter R. Recite both forms in the order given in the table :—*Build*, *built* or *builded*, *built* or *builded*.

A form in italics, or a regular form represented by an italic *R*, is not now in good use, though once authorized. When there are two forms, the preferable one is placed first.

No mistakes in grammar are more frequent than those connected with the parts of irregular verbs. This Table should therefore receive careful attention. Each page of verbs with the Exercise at the bottom may constitute a lesson. After the errors in the Exercise are corrected, the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and verbs may be parsed.

Root.	*Imperf.*	*Perf. Part.*
Abide,	abode,	abode.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.
Awake,	awoke, R.,	awoke, R.
Be,	was,	been.
Bear (carry),	bore, *bare*,	borne.
Bear (bring forth),	bore, *bare*,	born.
Beat,	beat,	beaten, beat.
Begin,	began, *begun*,	begun.
Behold,	beheld,	beheld.
Belay,	R., belaid,	R., belaid.
Bend,	bent, R.,	bent, R.
Bereave,	bereft, R.,	bereft, R.
Beseech,	besought, *R.*	besought, *R.*
Bet,	bet, R.,	bet, R.
Betide,	R., *betid*,	R., *betid*.
Bid,	bade, bid,	bidden, bid.
Bind,	bound,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	bitten, bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.
Blend,	R., *blent*,	R., *blent*.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Break,	broke, *brake*,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	brought.
Build,	built, *R.*,	built, *R.*
Burn,	R., burnt,	R., burnt.
Burst,	burst,	burst.
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	cast.
Catch,	caught, *R.*,	caught, *R.*
Chide,	chid, *chode*,	chidden, chid.
Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Cleave (adhere),	R., *clove*, *clave*,	cleaved.
Cleave (split),	cleft, *clove*,	cleft, *cloven*, R.
Cling,	clung,	clung.
Clothe,*	R., clad,	R., clad.
Come,	came,	come.
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Creep,	crept,	crept.
Crow,	crew, R.,	crowed.

* *Unclothe* is regular.

EXERCISE.

Correct the errors in the verbs:—Monroe was born to the grave on the very day that I was borne.—The games have began.—You must do what he has bade you do.—The wind blowed hard.—You might have chose something better.—My friends have cloven to me.—She was greatly frightened, and her tongue cleft to the roof of her mouth.—He clumb to the top of the mountain.—John come to the city yesterday.—She has came on business.—He has overcame every difficulty.

Conjugate re-awake; upbear; bare (regular); underbid; rebuild; underbuy; overcast; mischoose; overcome.

Root.	*Imperf.*	*Perf. Part.*
Cut,	cut,	cut.
Dare (venture),	durst, R.	dared.
Deal,	dealt, *R.*,	dealt, *R.*
Dig,	dug, *R.*,	dug, *R.*
Dive,	R., *dove*,	dived.
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Dream,	R., drĕamt,	R., drĕamt.
Drink,	drank,	drunk, drank.
Drive,	drove,	driven.
Dwell,	dwelt, R.,	dwelt, R.
Eat,	ate, ĕat,	eaten, *ĕat.*
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fought.
Find,	found,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Forbear,	forbore,	forborne.
Forget,	forgot,	forgotten, forgot.
Forgive,	forgave,	forgiven.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Get,	got, *gat*,	got, *gotten.*
Gild,	R., gilt,	R., gilt.
Gird,	girt, R.,	girt, R.
Give,	gave,	given.
Go,	went,	gone.
Grave,*	graved,	graven, R.
Grind,	ground,	ground.
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Hang,	hung, R.,†	hung, R.†
Have,	had,	had.
Hear,	heard,	heard.
Heave,	R., hove,	R., *hoven.*
Hew,	hewed,	hewn, R.
Hide,	hid,	hidden, hid.
Hit,	hit,	hit.
Hold,	held,	held, *holden.*‡
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.

* *Engrave* is regular.

† *Hung* is the preferable form, except when suspension by the neck for the purpose of killing is meant, in which case *hanged* is generally used. The meat was *hung* up; the murderer was *hanged*. *Overhang* takes the irregular forms only.

‡ *Holden* is still used in law language; as, "The court was *holden*."

EXERCISE.

Correct the errors in the verbs:—The king dared not sign the warrant.—Brown durst Jones to wrestle with him.—Have you ever dove in a deep river?—Who done it?—We done our best.—He overdrawed his account.—Some drunk too much.—You have overdrove this horse; you driv him too fast.—They fell five trees yesterday.—Some evil has befell.—The battle lasted till evening; the enemy fit bravely.—The Nile had overflown its banks.—I had forebore pressing my claim.—He may have went to Texas.—It was engraven on my heart.—We heared you laugh.—Have you hurted yourself?

Root.	*Imperf.*	*Perf. Part.*
Keep,	kept,	kept.
Kneel,	knelt, R.,	knelt, R.
Knit,	knit, R.,	knit, R.
Know,	knew,	known.
Lade (load),	laded,	laden, R.
Lay,	laid,	laid.
Lead,	led,	led.
Lean,	R., *lĕant*,	R., *lĕant*.
Leave,	left,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lent.
Let,	let,	let.
Lie (recline),	lay,	lain.
Light,	R., *lit*,*	R., *lit*.
Lose,	lost,	lost.
Make,	made,	made.
Mean,	mĕant, *R.*,	mĕant, *R.*
Meet,	met,	met.
Mow,	mowed,	R., mown.
Pay,	paid,	paid.
Pen (confine),	pent, R.,	pent, R.
Plead,†	R., *pled*,	R., *pled*.
Prove,‡	proved,	R., *proven*.
Put,	put,	put.
Quit,	quit, R.,	quit, R.
Rap (seize),	rapt, *rapped*,	rapt, *R.*
Read,	rĕad,	rĕad.
Reave,	*reft*,	*reft*.
Rend,	rent,	rent.
Rid,	rid,	rid.
Ride,	rode,	ridden, *rode*.
Ring,	rung, rang,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Rive,	rived,	riven, R.
Roast,	roasted,	R., *roast*.
Run,	ran, run,	run.
Saw,	sawed,	R., sawn.
Say,	said,	said.
See,	saw,	seen.
Seek,	sought,	sought.
Seethe,	R., *sod*,	R., sodden.
Sell,	sold,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sent.
Set,	set,	set.
Shake,	shook, *R.*,	shaken.
Shape,	shaped,	R., shapen.
Shave,	shaved,	R., shaven.
Shear,	sheared,	shorn, R.
Shed,	shed,	shed.

* Obsolete as an elegant form. † *Implead* is regular. ‡ *Disprove* is regular.

EXERCISE.

Correct the errors in the verbs:—I knowed you would lay down this afternoon.—Where have you lain my purse?—My father laid down and took a nap.—She may have laid down.—Hereupon he pent some verses, for which he was well repayed.—The evidence in the case of Robert White, impled with Godfrey and others, has been disproven.—The audience were wrapt with admiration.—He rid very fast, and arrived before the bell had rang.—Martha has outran all the rest.—I seen him.—I see him do it yesterday.

Conjugate inlay; underlet; overlie; loose (regular); remake; demean (regular); overpay; acquit (regular); uprise; foresee.

Root.	*Imperf.*	*Perf. Part.*
Shew (*shō*),	shewed,	shewn, R.
Shine,	shone, R.,	shone, R.
Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Show,	showed,	shown, R.
Shred,	shred,	shred.
Shrink,	shrunk, *shrank*,	shrunk, *shrunken.*
Shut,	shut,	shut.
Sing,	sung, sang,	sung.
Sink,	sunk, sank,	sunk.
Sit,	sat,	sat, *sitten.*
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Slide,	slid,	slidden, slid.
Sling,	slung, *slang*,	slung.
Slink,	slunk, *slank*,	slunk.
Slit,	slit, R.,	slit, R.
Smite,	smote,	smitten, smit.†
Sow,	sowed,	R., sown.
Speak,	spoke, *spake*,*	spoken.
Speed,	sped, R.,	sped, R.
Spend,	spent,	spent.
Spill,	R., spilt,	R., spilt.
Spin,	spun, *span*,	spun.
Spit,	spit, *spat*,	spit, *spitten.*
Split,	split, *R.*,	split, *R.*
Spread,	spread,	spread.
Spring,	sprung, sprang,	sprung.
Stand,	stood,	stood.
Stave,	stove, R.,	stove, R.
Stay,	R., staid,	R., staid.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stung.
Stink,	stunk, stank,	stunk.
Stride,	strode, *strid*,	stridden, strid.
Strike,	struck,	struck, stricken.

* *Spake* is still used in solemn and poetical style. † Rare.

EXERCISE.

Correct the errors in the verbs:—Some horses are shoed every month.—Have you not often shrank from your duty?—If she had sang louder and spoke more distinctly, she would have been heared better.—After the vessel had sank, we set still on the shore.—The duke set his horse admirably.—David might have smote Saul as he laid asleep.—From morning till night they spinned.—The boat was stoven.—King Philip had stole away.—Nobody has ever strewn roses in my path.—He must have slinged it into the river.

Conjugate gainsay; forego; overhear; undersell; missend; overshoot; resow; understand; strew (regular); misgive.

Root.	*Imperf.*	*Perf. Part.*	*Root.*	*Imperf.*	*Perf. Part.*
String,	strung,	strung.	Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Strive,	strove,	striven, *R.*	Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Strow,	strowed,	strown, R.	Tread,	trod,	trodden, trod.
Swear,	swore, *sware,*	sworn.	Wake,	R., woke,	R., woke.
Sweat,	sweat, R.,	sweat, R.	Wax (grow),	waxed,	R., *waxen.*
Sweep,	swept,	swept.	Wear,	wore,	worn.
Swell,	swelled,	R., swollen.	Weave,	wove, *R.,*	woven, *R.*
Swim,	swum, swam,	swum.	Wed,	R., *wed,*	R., wed.
Swing,	swung, *swang,*	swung.	Weep,	wept,	wept.
Take,	took,	taken.	Wet,	wet, R.,	wet, R.
Teach,	taught,	taught.	Win,	won,	won.
Tear,	tore,	torn.	Wind (twine),	wound,	wound.
Tell,	told,	told.	Work,	R., wrought,	R., wrought.
Think,	thought,	thought.	Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Thrive,	throve, R.,	thriven, R.	Write,	wrote,	written.

384. The following verbs, whose imperfect indicative and perfect participle are by some made to end in *t* (as, *spelt*, *past*, *mixt*), are properly regular:—

Smell	Bless	Distress	Snap	Pass	Mix
Spell	Dress	Oppress	Wrap	Toss	Curse

Ed, after *l*, *p*, and *s*, is generally sounded like *t*, and thus the irregular forms in question have arisen. They are condemned by the best authorities.

Primitive verbs not found in the above Table are regular.

EXERCISE.

Correct the errors in the verbs:—Several valuable horses were hamstringed.—You have forswore yourself.—I have learnt to swim, but have never swam more than a few strokes.—You may have took pains, but this does not look like it.—She says she has tore her dress.—He writ a poem, and after it was wrote throwed it into the fire.—He who was curst of men seemed to be blest of Heaven.—He tost his head, and wrapt his cloak more closely about him.—I am oppress with grief and distrest beyond measure.

Conjugate unstring; mistake; unteach; bethink; overthrow; unweave; outwork; rewrite; outstrip; misspell; undress.

LESSON LIV.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

385. A verb is said to be Defective when some of its parts are wanting. The defective verbs are *ought*, *beware*, *would*, *quoth* or *quod*, *wit*, *wis*, *wot*, *methinks*, and *meseems*.

386. **Ought** appears only in the present and imperfect of the indicative and the subjunctive mood. It is conjugated thus:—

Pres. and Imperf. Ind.		*Pres. and Imperf. Subj.*	
1. I ought,	We ought,	1. If I ought,	If we ought,
2. Thou oughtest,	You ought,	2. If thou ought,	If you ought,
3. He ought;	They ought.	3. If he ought;	If they ought.

The two tenses, in each mood, have the same form; to tell which is used in a given sentence, look at the other words, and see whether present or past time is meant. "I *ought* [present] to write." "I *ought* [imperfect] to have written yesterday."

387. *Ought* has no participle. Hence the expression *hadn't ought* is wrong; correct it to *ought not*.

388. **Beware**, as if compounded of *be* and *ware* (for *wary*), is used only in those tenses which in the verb *be* retain *be*. Thus:—

IND. FIRST FU.—I shall or will *be*ware; thou shalt or wilt *be*ware, &c.
POTENTIAL PRES.—I may, can, must, or need *be*ware.
POTENTIAL IMPERF.—I might, could, would, or should *be*ware
SUBJUNCTIVE PRES.—If I *be*ware; if thou *be*ware, &c.
IMPERATIVE PRES., 2nd person.—*Be*ware thou; *be*ware you.
INFINITIVE PRES.—To *be*ware.

389. **Would**, as a principal verb, is found only in the present and imperfect indicative and subjunctive. It

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385. When is a verb said to be Defective? Mention the defective verbs. 386. In what tenses does *ought* appear? Go through these tenses. How are they to be distinguished in a given sentence? 387. What expression is condemned, and why? 388. In what tenses only is *beware* used? Mention these parts. 389. In what parts is the principal verb *would* found? Mention the expressions in which

is rarely used except in the expressions *would God*, *would Heaven*, *would to God*, *would to Heaven*, *I would that*, *would that*.

Would God, *would Heaven* (as in the sentence, "Would God I had died for thee, O Absalom!"), mean *Oh that it were God's will! Oh that Heaven willed!* Here the verb *would* is in the subjunctive, imperfect, third, singular, and agrees respectively with *God* and *Heaven*.— *Would to God* and *would to Heaven* are corrupt forms for *would God* and *would Heaven*, and should be treated as such in parsing.

In the expressions *I would that* and *would that*, *would* is equivalent to *wish*, and is found in the indicative, present, first, singular, agreeing with *I*.

390. **Quoth** and **quod**, meaning *said*, are now obsolete except in humorous style. They are used only in the imperfect tense, first and third singular, and always stand before their subject: "quoth I," "quod he."

391. **Wit**, meaning *know*, is used only in the present infinitive, in the common expression *to wit*, which is equivalent to *namely*. The kindred forms, **wis** (imperfect, *wist*) and **wot** (formerly used as both a present and an imperfect), are now obsolete.

392. **Methinks** and **meseems**, meaning *it seems to me*, are in the indicative, present, third, singular. They are used only in this part and the third singular of the imperfect tense,—*methought*, *meseemed*.

These verbs never admit of a subject; and, from their being used in but one person, they are called Unipersonal Verbs. "He stood, methought, beside my bed." "Meseems I see my murdered brother."

In solemn style *methinks* becomes *methinketh*; and *meseems*, *meseemeth*.

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it generally appears. Explain and parse the expressions *would God*, *would Heaven*. What is said of the expressions *would to God*, *would to Heaven*? Parse *would* in the expressions *I would that*, *would that*. 390. What do *quoth* and *quod* mean? To what style do they now belong? In what tenses are they found? How do they stand? 391. What does *wit* mean? In what part only is it used? What is said of the kindred forms *wis* and *wot*? 392. What do *methinks* and *meseems* mean? Where alone are they found? What are these verbs called, and why?

393. PARSING.—When a verb is defective, state it in parsing, in stead of calling the verb regular or irregular. The unipersonals not having any subject, no rule can be given for their agreement.

Methinks you ought to beware of such false friends.

Methinks is a unipersonal intransitive verb, in the indicative mood, present tense, third person, singular number; admits of no subject.

Ought is a defective intransitive verb, in the indicative mood, present tense, second person, plural number, and agrees with its subject *you*:—*Rule*, A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

To Beware is a defective intransitive verb, in the infinitive mood, present tense, and limits the meaning of the verb *ought*:—*Rule*, A verb in the infinitive is used as a subject, or limits the meaning of some other word, or stands independently in the sentence.

EXERCISE.

Parse the pronouns, adjectives, and verbs:—"Beware of flatterers," quoth my father; "it were better to fall among pick-pockets than among them."—Would Heaven all men were honest!—Thou oughtest to have discovered, meseems, that riches can not purchase true friends.—We must beware of the faults of the tongue; to wit, slanderings, false witness, profanity.—Would that Hungary had won her freedom.—Methought I was wandering in Elysium.—If thou ought to improve thy time, improve it.—Israel would none of me.

LESSON LV.

THE ADVERB.

394. THE ADVERB.—The sixth part of speech is the Adverb.

"We saw to-day a very beautiful sunrise."

In this sentence, the verb *saw* is modified by *to-day*, telling *when* we

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In solemn style, what do *methinks* and *meseems* become? 393. How is a defective verb to be parsed? Learn the parsing forms.

394. What is the sixth part of speech? In the sentence *We saw to-day a very beautiful sunrise*, by what is the verb *saw* modified? By what, the adjective *beau-*

saw; and the adjective *beautiful* is modified by *very*, telling *how* beautiful. *To-day*, *very*, and words of similar force used to modify verbs and adjectives, are called Adverbs.

An adverb is likewise used to modify another adverb; also, a preposition; also, an *adjunct*,—that is, an expression consisting of a preposition, its object, and the words that modify the latter. "It went considerably beyond my expectations;" the adverb *considerably* modifies the preposition *beyond*. "The Esquimaux live almost exclusively on animal food;" the adverb *almost* modifies the adverb *exclusively*, while the adverb *exclusively* modifies the adjunct *on animal food*.

395. An **Adverb** is a word expressing manner, time, place, degree, affirmation, negation, possibility, or number, used to modify a verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, adjunct, or a whole idea.

Examples of adverbs, arranged according to their meaning, follow :—

1. MANNER.—*How?* *Thus*, *so*, *well*, *ill*, *together*, *somehow*, *anyhow*, *otherwise*, *lengthwise*, *slowly*, *happily*, and most other words ending in *how*, *wise*, and *ly*.

2. TIME.—*When?* *Then*, *now*, *immediately*, *forthwith*, *already*, *formerly*, *to-day*, *yesterday*, *to-morrow*, *soon*, *lately*, *early*, *daily*, *seldom*, *often*, *ever*, *always*, &c.

3. PLACE.—*Where?* *Here*, *there* (and most of their compounds, as *wherever*, *herein*, *thereabouts*, &c.), *whither*, *hither*, *thither*, *whence*, *hence*, *thence*, *away*, *off*, *far*, *up*, *down*, *aboard*, *ashore*, *homewards*, and most other words ending in *wards*.

4. DEGREE.—*Much*, *little*, *very*, *exceedingly*, *greatly*, *quite*, *enough*, *equally*, *scarcely*, *nearly*, *almost*.—Adverbs that modify other adverbs or adjectives generally express degree.

5. AFFIRMATION.—*Yes*, *ay*, *certainly*, *truly*, *indeed*, *doubtless*, *amen*.

6. NEGATION.—*No*, *nay*, *not*, *nowise*, *nohow*, *never*.

7. POSSIBILITY.—*Perhaps*, *perchance*, *maybe*, *possibly*, *haply*.

8. NUMBER.—*First* (which is preferable to *firstly*), *secondly*, *thirdly*, &c.; *once*, *twice*, *thrice*.

396. *Adverbs of Manner.*—Adverbs of manner are

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tiful? What are *to-day* and *very* called? What else besides verbs and adjectives is an adverb used to modify? Give examples. 395. Define an Adverb. Give examples of adverbs of manner. Of time. Of place. Of degree. Of affirmation. Of negation. Of doubt. Of number. 396. Which of these are the most numerous?

the most numerous. Many of them are formed from adjectives by adding the suffix *ly*, meaning *in a manner*. Thus, from RUDE, *rudely*, in a rude manner; from SIMPLE, *simply*, in a simple manner.

397. Observe that words ending in *ly*, particularly those formed from nouns, are not always adverbs. Some are adjectives only; as, *holy*, *scaly*. Others are generally adjectives, though sometimes adverbs; as, the *manly* virtues, *kingly* sway, *godly* men, *daily* prayers, *deadly* hatred,—he acted *manly*, it occurs *daily*, &c.

398. Adverbs formed with the suffix *ly*, from adjectives already ending in *ly*, should be avoided as inharmonious. For *godlily*, *holily*, say *in a godly manner*, *in a holy manner*.

399. Any word that in a given passage modifies a verb, adjective, or adverb, is an adverb, though it may usually appear as some other part of speech. Observe the adverbs in italics in the following examples:—

To travel *post* (commonly a noun);—*crack* (commonly a noun or verb) went the mast;—*click* goes the spring;—to drink *deep* and talk *loud* (commonly adjectives);—'twas *passing* (commonly a participle) strange;—*exceeding* great reward;—it was *but* (commonly a conjunction) a fancy.

400. Words that generally appear as adverbs are sometimes used as the names of things, and then become nouns; as, "*To-morrow* is uncertain." "*Now* is the time to repent." "*Upwards* of twenty were hurt."

401. Words that generally appear as adverbs are sometimes used to qualify the meaning of nouns, and then become adjectives; as, an *only* son, our *homeward* journey.

How are many adverbs of manner formed? 397. As what other part of speech do words ending in *ly* sometimes appear? Give examples. 398. What adverbs of manner should be avoided as inharmonious? 399. Give examples showing how a word that usually appears as some other part of speech may be used as an adverb. 400. What part of speech do words that generally appear as adverbs sometimes become? 401. For what are words that generally appear as adverbs sometimes

402. *Caution.*—Adverbs must be carefully distinguished from adjectives. To tell them apart, see in each case to what the word in question relates. If it relates to a noun, it is an adjective; but, if it relates to a verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, adjunct, or the whole idea, it is an adverb.

If I say "a loud noise," *loud* relates to the noun *noise*, and is therefore an adjective. But, if I say "speak loud," *loud* relates to the verb *speak*, and is therefore an adverb. So in the following examples:—

Adjectives.—An *upward* flight; *clĕanly* habits; the *above* rules; the *first* fruits; Sarah is *well*; the *very* man himself; he will come *to-morrow* morning; a *far* country; a *daily* paper; *no* mercy.

Adverbs.—To fly *upward;* to live *clĕanly*; look *above;* he spoke *first;* Sarah reads *well; very* sour; *very* handsomely; he will come *to-morrow;* to travel *far;* it happens *daily; no* longer.

EXERCISE.

Insert adverbs of manner: Time flies —. How — and — Adelaide studies! Your canary warbles —. The trees are — loaded with fruit, and pay us — for our labor. Marlborough — addressed his men, and then — led them against the foe. The sleigh-bells are ringing —. No poet has written more — than Milton.

Insert adverbs of time or place:— and — did Garibaldi go? Impostors are to be found —. My mocking-bird has flown —; will you get me another —? —tell the truth. Earthquakes — occur in England. Franklin pondered the matter —, walking — and — with his arms folded. Books are — much better printed than they — were.

Form an adverb from each of the following adjectives, and spell it:—Rude; manful; obstinate; general; vicious; liberal; busy; ancient; natural; real; sure; true (*this word and the next four reject final* e *before the suffix* ly, *though it begins with a consonant*); untrue; due; undue; whole; feeble (*see Rule III., p.* 20); noble; amiable; terrible; agreeable; inseparable; passable; irresistible;

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used? What do they then become? Give examples. 402. From what must adverbs be carefully distinguished? How may adjectives and adverbs be told apart? Illustrate this. Give other examples showing the difference between adjectives and adverbs.

vile (*here* le *is not preceded by a consonant*); stale; sole; pale; servile; hearty (*see Rule VI., p.* 21); haughty; pretty; handy; dainty; easy; coy (*here a vowel precedes final* y); gay.

LESSON LVI.

ADVERBS (CONTINUED).

403. *Adjectives and Adverbs to be distinguished in Use.*—We have seen in § 401 that some words may be used as both adjectives and adverbs. There are generally, however, distinct forms for these two parts of speech, and in that case one must not be used for the other.

A soon answer; the now governor. These expressions are wrong, because the adverb *soon* is joined to the noun *answer*, and the adverb *now* to the noun *governor*. Substitute the adjectives *speedy* and *present: a speedy answer; the present governor.*

Lead is melted easier than iron. This tea is uncommon good. These sentences are wrong, because the adjective *easier* is joined to the verb *is melted*, and the adjective *uncommon* to the adjective *good*. Substitute the corresponding adverbs:—*Lead is melted more easily than iron. This tea is uncommonly good.*

404. The verbs *look*, *seem*, *appear*, *feel*, *taste*, *smell*, and *sound*, when a quality of the subject is to be expressed, should be followed by an adjective relating to the subject, and not by an adverb; as, "The garden looks *handsome* [not *handsomely*]." "Roses smell *sweet* [not *sweetly*]."

405. *Conjunctive Adverbs.*—"Wait till I come."

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403. What rule is laid down, when there are distinct forms for an adjective and the corresponding adverb? Give examples of the violation of this rule, and point out the errors. 404. Give and illustrate the rule relating to the verbs *look*, *seem*, &c. 405. What is the force of *till* in the sentence *Wait till I come?* What are words that simply connect called? What are adverbs that connect called? What words are most frequently used as conjunctive adverbs? Illustrate their use in sentences.

Here the adverb *till*, besides modifying the verb *come*, connects two parts of the sentence,—*wait* and *I come*. Words that connect simply, are called Conjunctions; adverbs that connect, are called Conjunctive Adverbs.

The words most frequently used as conjunctive adverbs are *why*, *how*, *when*, *where*, *wherefore*, *therefore*, *after*, *before*, *till*.

Examples of Conjunctive Adverbs.—I do not know *why* I was sent, *how* I can cross the river, *where* I am to go, or *when* I must return.—Man has reason; *therefore* he is not a brute.—Was Polk president *before* or *after* you were born?

406. REMARKS.—We can generally express the meaning of an adverb with two or more other words. Thus:—They called *daily* [*every day*]. *Hence* [*from this*] it follows. *Thrice* [*three times*] I warned him. He answered *briefly* [*in a brief manner*].

Two or more words, therefore, taken together, sometimes convey a single adverbial idea. The words in question may lose their individual force, as in *by and by* (presently), *on high* (above), *as yet* (hitherto); in such cases, they should be parsed together, as a Complex Adverb. If they retain their individual force, they must be parsed separately. *In particular*, *in vain*, *at present*, *at least*, are combinations of a preposition and an adjective relating to a noun understood;—*in a particular manner*, *in a vain manner*, *at the present time*, *at the least estimate*. *At length*, *at once*, *in fine*, *on the whole*, are combinations of a preposition and a noun.

407. *Inside-out*, *upside-down*, *topsy-turvy*, should be written with the hyphen and parsed as adverbs. *Red-hot*, *bright-yellow*, *stone-blind*, &c., should also be written with the hyphen. The compound words thus formed, are adjectives. If the hyphen is omitted, *red*, *bright*, and *stone* modify the several adjectives, and are therefore adverbs.

408. The adverb *there* generally means *in that place*. Sometimes, however, it is used merely to introduce a sentence; in which case the verb precedes its subject. "There was a man sent from God, whose name was John."

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406. How can we generally express the meaning of an adverb? If the words thus taken together lose their individual force, how should they be parsed? How, if they retain their individual force? Explain the expressions *in particular*, *in vain*, &c. Explain the expressions *at length*, *at once*, &c. 407. How should *inside-out*, *upside-down*, *topsy-turvy* be written and parsed? What is said of *red-hot*, *bright-yellow*, *stone-blind*, &c.? 408. What does *there* generally mean? For what

409. *Where*, *here*, and *there*, implying *rest or motion in*, are used in familiar style for *whither*, *hither*, and *thither*, implying *motion towards;* as, I came *here*, he marched *there*.

410. *Whence*, *hence*, *thence*, *henceforth*, and *thenceforth*, imply *motion from*. The word *from*, therefore, sometimes used before them, is unnecessary. If it is allowed to stand [as, *From whence* came ye?], *from* is a preposition, and *whence*, *hence*, &c., after it are nouns.

411. Say *seldom if ever* or *seldom or never*, NOT *seldom or ever*. "Seldom or never has so great a mind as Newton's appeared; seldom, if ever, will so great a mind appear again."

EXERCISE.

Select the adverbs, and tell what they express:—Few indeed, nay we may say none, are perfectly happy here.—Even the wisest man may perchance be deceived.—You have not studied quite enough to-day.—Always think twice before you speak once.—He who lies abed late in the morning loses far the best part of the day.—Hope on, hope ever.

Tell what part of speech each word in italics is:—She went *splash*, *splash*, *right* through the mud.—Rising *early*, I set *out*.—*Early* piety is pleasing to the Lord.—Columbus sailed *west*.—The wind is *west*.—The wind is from the *west*.—He drank *too much*.—I wondered *much* to see the *off* horse *so lively*.—We drove *off*.—*To-morrow* may never come.—Since *then* he has had money *enough*.—She conducted affairs skilfully *enough*.—Do the wicked ever think of a *hereafter*?—*Hereafter* we will live *apart*.

Correct, and give the reasons:—Never answer surlily (§ 398).—We should try to live godlily.—I like to see persons move about livelily.—The seldom rainbow (§ 403) paints the sky.—The once king became a beggar.—My heretofore life has been full of errors.—The moon looks very brightly.—Your flute sounds sweetly.—They rise successive.—Do not think too high of yourself.—How foolish William behaved!—He spoke briefer than I supposed he would.—Wellington was seldom or ever defeated in battle.

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purpose is it sometimes used? 409. For what words are *where*, *here*, and *there* used in familiar style? 410. What is said of the use of *from* before *whence*, *hence*, *thence*, &c.? 411. What should we say in stead of *seldom or ever*?

LESSON LVII.

COMPARISON AND CONSTRUCTION OF ADVERBS.

412. Comparison of Adverbs.—Adverbs are indeclinable; but a few, of one or two syllables, are compared, like adjectives.

413. The comparative degree is regularly formed by adding *er* to the positive; and the superlative, by adding *est*. Thus:—

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Sup.*	*Pos.*	*Comp.*	*Sup.*
Late,	later,	latest.	Early,	earlier,	earliest.
Fast,	faster,	fastest.	Often,	oftener,	oftenest.

414. Old writers compare some of the adverbs ending in *ly*. Milton uses the words *plainlier*, *rightlier*, *firmlier*; and in Shakspeare we even find *easiliest*. Such forms are now out of use; we say *more plainly*, *more rightly*, *more firmly*, *most easily*.

415. The following adverbs are irregular in their comparison:—

Pos.	*Comp.*	*Sup.*	*Pos.*	*Comp.*	*Sup.*
Badly, ill,	worse,	worst.	Much,	more,	most.
Well,	better,	best.	Far,	farther,	farthest.
Little,	less,	least.	Forth,	further,	furthest.

416. *More* is the adverb used to give the force of the comparative degree, and *most* to give the force of the superlative, to adjectives that can not be compared. These words may be used with the same force before many adverbs, particularly those of manner; as, *more gracefully*, *most gracefully*; *more frequently*, *most frequently*. An adverb, however, is not said to be compared, unless it takes *er* and *est*, or changes its form as in the above list of irregulars.

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412. How are some adverbs varied? 413. How are the comparative and the superlative degree regularly formed? Compare some examples. 414. What adverbs are compared by old writers? What does Milton use? What do we now use in stead of these forms? 415. Name and compare the adverbs that are irregular in their comparison. 416. For what are *more* and *most* used? To what besides adjectives may they be joined? When only is an adverb said to be com-

417. CONSTRUCTION OF ADVERBS.—An adverb will generally be found to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

418. The word modified by an adverb may be found by asking a question with *what*. Thus:—"Is that sum hard? Yes; very." *Question.* Very *what?* *Answer.* Very *hard.* The adverb *very* relates to the adjective *hard* understood.

As we have just seen, the word that an adverb modifies may be understood. Other examples follow:—"Up and on them, my gallant boys [that is, *get up* and *fall on* them]!" "Away to the ship, my men [that is, *go away*]!" Sometimes in lively style an adverb is joined to an auxiliary expressed, while the root of the verb is understood; as, "I'll thence to Florence [that is, I'll *go* thence]."

419. Sometimes an adverb modifies an idea conveyed by the whole or part of a sentence. In that case, as it bears no grammatical relation to any particular word, we say that it is used independently. The adverbs oftenest used independently are as follows:—

1. *Yes* and *no*, used in answering questions; and *amen*, at the end of prayers.

2. *Forth*, in the common expression *and so forth.* Here the adverb *so* modifies the adverb *forth*, but *forth* is used independently.

3. *Consequently*, *therefore*, and *then*, implying inference. "Lignum vitæ, *therefore*, will sink in water."

4. *First*, *secondly*, *thirdly*, &c., introducing successive particulars.

5. *Why* and *well*, used simply to introduce a sentence. "*Why*, I forgot." "*Well*, he is happy at last."

420. RULE XV.—An adverb relates to the word or words whose meaning it modifies, or stands independently in the sentence.

421. PARSING.—To parse an adverb, compare it and

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pared? 417. What will an adverb generally be found to modify? 418. How may the word modified by an adverb be found? Illustrate this. Give other examples showing that the modified word may be understood. 419. When is an adverb said to be used independently? Mention the adverbs oftenest used independently, and the circumstances under which they are so used. 420. Recite Rule XV. 421. How is an adverb parsed? Learn the forms.

state its degree, if it can be compared; tell what it relates to or state that it is used independently; if a conjunctive adverb, tell what it connects and what it relates to; finally, give Rule XV.

By and by we shall travel still more rapidly.

By and by is a complex adverb, and relates to the verb *shall travel*:—*Rule*, An adverb relates to the word or words whose meaning it modifies, or stands independently in the sentence.

Still is an adverb, and relates to the adverb *more*:—*Rule*, An adverb, &c.

More is an adverb; *much, more, most;* in the comparative degree, and relates to the adverb *rapidly*:—*Rule*, An adverb, &c.

Rapidly is an adverb, and relates to the verb *shall travel*:—*Rule*, An adverb, &c.

Well, I'll off to Paris, after you leave.

Well is an adverb, used independently:—*Rule*, an adverb, &c.

Off is an adverb, and relates to the verb *will go* (the root *go* being understood):—*Rule*, An adverb, &c.

After is a conjunctive adverb; it connects *I'll off to Paris* and *you leave*, and relates to the verb *leave*:—*Rule*, An adverb, &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs:—In 1545,* an Indian, climbing an exceedingly steep mountain in Bolivia, to support himself the better, took hold of a bush that happened to be growing just above† where he stood. The bush immediately came up in his hand; and its root, strangely enough, was covered with a glittering dust. This turned out to be silver ore, and thus were accidentally discovered the celebrated silver mines of Potosi, which rank among the most valuable mineral deposits hitherto known.—Tunis now stands not far from where ancient Carthage formerly stood.—Just now there are no wars or rumors of wars anywhere.—Seldom, if ever, has a hyena been tamed.—On, Stanley, on.

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* A noun, being the name of a year.

† A preposition, not an adverb, its object *place* being understood;—*just above* [the place] *where he stood.*

LESSON LVIII.

THE PREPOSITION

422. THE PREPOSITION.—The seventh part of speech is the Preposition.

"Washington marched to Princeton."

The relation between Washington's marching and Princeton is here expressed by *to;* not *from* Princeton, nor *round* Princeton, nor *past* Princeton, but *to* Princeton. The words in italics express each a different relation, and are called Prepositions.

423. That term of the relation which naturally follows the preposition, is called its Object; and, if it is a noun, it is in the objective case, according to Rule IV. In the above example, *Princeton* is the object of the preposition *to*, and is in the objective case.

A preposition may also have for its object a pronoun in the objective, a verb in the infinitive, or a participle; as, "There is an air of mystery *about him*." "The concert was *about to commence*." "The concert was *about commencing*."

424. A **Preposition** is a word used to show the relation that a substantive, infinitive, or participle bears to some other term in the sentence.

425. An **Adjunct** is an expression consisting of a preposition, its object, and the words that modify the latter. "Wellington was *about commencing important and extensive operations;*" the words in italics constitute an adjunct.

426. LIST OF PREPOSITIONS.—The following list embraces all the prepositions in common use:—

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422. What is the seventh part of speech? In the sentence *Washington marched to Princeton*, what does the word *to* express? What other words might be used, to indicate different relations? What are these words called? 423. What is the Object of a preposition? What may a preposition have for its object? 424. Define a Preposition. 425. Define an Adjunct. 426. Give as many prepo-

a,	at,	concerning,	off,	to,
abaft,	athwart,	despite,	on,	touching,
aboard,	bating,	down,	over,	toward,
about,	before,	during,	overthwart,	towards,
above,	behind,	ere,	past,	under,
across,	below,	except,	pending,	underneath,
after,	beneath,	excepting,	regarding,	until,
against,	beside,	for,	respecting,	unto,
along,	besides,	from,	round,	up,
amid,	between,	in,	save,	upon,
amidst,	betwixt,	into,	since,	versus,
among,	beyond,	minus,	through,	with,
amongst,	but,	notwithstanding,	throughout,	within,
around,	by,	of,	till,	without.

427. CAUTION.—The words in the above list are not prepositions in every sentence, but only when they express some relation and have an object.

Thus:—"A polite man would not have burst out a laughing." The first *a* has no object, but limits the meaning of the noun *man;* it is therefore an article. The second *a* has the participle *laughing* for its object, and is a preposition.

428. Many of the words in the above list of prepositions, particularly those that denote place or direction, are also used as adverbs.

If I say, "Look above this earth," *above* has the noun *earth* for its object, and is a preposition. But if I say, "Look above," *above* has no object; it modifies the verb *look*, and is therefore an adverb.

429. Some of the words in the list of prepositions are also used as conjunctions,—that is, to connect words or sentences.

If I say, "All but me remained," *but* is used with the force of *except*, has *me* for its object, and is a preposition. If I say, "But Brutus is an honorable man," *but* is used without an object, as a connective, and it is there-

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sitions of the list as you can remember. 427. When only are the words presented in the list prepositions? Give an example of the use of *a* as different parts of speech. 428. As what part of speech do many of the words in the list of prepositions appear? Illustrate this. 429. As what other part of speech do they also

fore a conjunction. On the other hand, *but*, when equivalent to *only*, is an adverb; as, "*But* [*only*] seven metals were known to the ancients." Observe the difference in the following examples:—

Prepositions.—Charlemagne flourished *about* the year 800.—Mercury freezes at 39 degrees *below* zero.—Throw it *over* the fence.—*Notwithstanding* his merits, Schuyler was superseded.—*Since* the invention of printing, books have multiplied.—Go *to* your home, and lay your throbbing head *on* your pillow.

Adverbs.—Horsemen were seen riding *about.*—Man wants but little here *below.*—Throw it *over.*—Printing was invented, and books have multiplied ever *since.*—There was now no home for Roger Williams to go *to*, no pillow for him to lay his head *on.*

Conjunctions.—Oil is lighter than water, *for* it floats on water.—*Notwithstanding* he was superseded, Schuyler did all he could for his country. —*Since* you suspect me, I have nothing to say.

430. COMPLEX PREPOSITIONS.—Two prepositions are sometimes used to express a compound relation. In that case, take them together in parsing, and call them a Complex Preposition. "The Germans came *from beyond* the Rhine;" *from beyond* is a complex preposition, showing the relation between *came* and *Rhine.*

From unites with various other prepositions, to form a complex preposition; as, *from aboard, from above, from within*, &c. Besides these, we have *according to, contrary to, as to, as for, because of, instead of, off of, out of, over against*, &c.

EXERCISE.

Supply prepositions, and tell the object of each; parse the adverbs: Elizabeth, daughter — Henry VIII., was born — Greenwich Palace, not far — London; she succeeded — the throne — the year 1558. — her faults as a woman, but one opinion is entertained — her as a queen; few British sovereigns — or — her time have displayed greater ability. The Danube flows — Austria and Turkey, and empties — the Black Sea; it has several large cities — its banks. Do your duty — fear. As we sailed — the

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appear? Give an example. Give an example of the use of the same word in different sentences as preposition and adverb; as preposition and conjunction. 430. What is a Complex Preposition? What preposition enters into a number of complex prepositions? Give some examples into which *from* does not enter.

island — sunset, I saw a coral reef extending — the east, just — the surface of the sea. Wearily we plodded — sharp rocks and — pathless solitudes.

LESSON LIX.

PREPOSITIONS (CONTINUED).

431. Position.—A preposition generally stands before its object. The word itself, *pre-position*, means *a placing before.*

432. The relatives *that* and *as*, however, always precede the preposition that governs them; as, "These doctrines were held by those *that* I have spoken *of* [or, such *as* I have spoken *of*]."

In familiar style, the other relatives also, as well as the interrogatives, precede the governing preposition; as, "Mr. Hall, *whom* I called *on* about your business, will attend to it to-day." "*What* do you allude *to*? *Whom* do you speak *of*?"

433. In some current phrases and in poetry, we occasionally find a noun preceding the preposition that governs it; as, all the *world over*; my *efforts* to the contrary *notwithstanding*; the churchyard's quiet *sods beneath.*

434. Terms of the Relation.—When the terms of the relation stand immediately before and after the preposition, they are seen at once: when not, to find the former term, ask a question with *what* before the preposition; to find the latter term, ask a question with *what* after it. The answers to these questions will be the terms of the relation.

Find the terms between which *for* shows the relation, in the following sentence: "For these purse-proud upstarts, Virtue herself, unless adorned with diamonds, would possess no charms." *Question.* What for these

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431. How does a preposition generally stand? What is the meaning of the word *pre-position*? 432. What exception is there to the rule just laid down? In familiar style, what words may precede the governing preposition? 433. What other exception is noted? 434. When are the terms between which a preposition shows the relation seen at once? When this is not the case, how may the terms

purse-proud upstarts? *Answer. Would possess;* this is the former term of the relation.—Would possess for *what? Answer. For* (these) *upstarts; upstarts* is the latter term of the relation.

435. The former term of the relation is sometimes understood; as, "[*Looking*] on the whole, I prefer spring."

436. The latter term of the relation is sometimes understood; as, "Samson is the strongest man [*that*] we read of in history."

437. The preposition itself is sometimes understood; as, "Throw [*to*] the dog a bone." "He was like [*to*] his father." "Germantown is near [*to*] Philadelphia."

438. When two relations subsist between the terms, two prepositions connected by a conjunction and having a common object may be used.

Thus: "Collector of taxes *in* and *for* the county of Westchester." *In* shows one relation between *collector* and *county*, and *for* another; *county* is in the objective case, governed by the prepositions *in* and *for*.

439. When the relation extends to several things, a preposition may have several objects, as in the following sentence:—"Few can form any idea *of* the *labors*, *trials*, and *disappointments*, that fall to the teacher's lot."

440. A preposition with its object often follows an intransitive verb; as, "We can not account for some things."

In some cases of this kind, the verb and preposition taken together come to be regarded as a transitive verb, and as such admit of a passive form; thus, "Some things can not be accounted for." Here *for* is no longer a preposition, for it has no object, but is part of the transitive verb *can be accounted for*.

In some cases a preposition is thus combined with an intransitive verb without making it transitive; as, "Glory is worth dying for." *Dying for* is the present participle of an intransitive verb.—Sometimes a preposition

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of the relation be found? Illustrate this. 435. Give a sentence showing that the former term is sometimes understood. 436. In like manner illustrate the omission of the latter term. 437. Finally, what is sometimes understood? 438. When two relations subsist between the terms, what may be used? Give an example. 439. When may a preposition have several objects? 440. What does a preposition with its object often follow? Show how the verb and preposition are sometimes thrown into the passive form Give an example in which the verb is not made

is combined in this way with a transitive verb in the active voice; as, "I have more time than I know what to do with." *To do with* is a transitive verb, governing the interrogative pronoun *what* in the objective case.

441. In like manner, the prepositions *for* and *of* enter into certain compound adjectives; as, *uncared-for*, *unsought-for*, *unheard-of*, *unthought-of*. Connect the parts of such compounds with the hyphen, and parse as common adjectives.

442. *To* in the infinitive mood is not a preposition, but part of the verb. In parsing, it must be taken with the rest of the verb, as shown in § 297.

443. RULE XVI.—A preposition shows the relation that a substantive, infinitive, or participle, bears to some other word or words in the sentence.

444. PARSING.—To parse a preposition, mention the terms between which it shows the relation, and give Rule XVI. Thus:—

Out of regard for a friend I had been so much attached to, I overlooked his reflections on my veracity and honor.

Out of is a complex preposition, and shows the relation between the noun *regard*, which is its object, and the verb *overlooked*:—*Rule*, A preposition shows the relation that a substantive, infinitive, or participle, bears to some other word or words in the sentence.

For is a preposition, and shows the relation between the noun *friend*, which is its object, and the noun *regard*:—*Rule*, A preposition, &c.

To is a preposition, and shows the relation between the relative pronoun *that* understood, which is its object, and the adjective *attached*:—*Rule*, A preposition, &c.

On is a preposition, and shows the relation between the nouns *veracity* and *honor*, which are its objects, and the noun *reflections*:—*Rule*, A preposition, &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse the adjectives, verbs, adverbs, and prepositions:—The times are sadly out of joint.—"Early to bed and early to rise,"

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transitive. With what kind of a verb is a preposition sometimes thus combined? 441. How are some compound adjectives formed? How should they be written? 442. How is *to* in the infinitive mood to be looked upon and parsed? 443. Recite Rule XVI. 444. How is a preposition parsed? Learn the form.

is a maxim which it would be well for all persons without exception to act upon.—Stephen fell off the bridge into the river, but succeeded in getting out safe, minus his hat.—Before the time of Gutenberg, books were written in stead of being printed.—The long wished-for day at length arrived, and was hailed on all sides with acclamations.—According to Cicero, there was a time when men wandered everywhere through the fields after the manner of beasts.—Notwithstanding your vaunted strength, to go a fishing and a hunting on the same day would be too much for you.

LESSON LX.

THE CONJUNCTION

445. THE CONJUNCTION.—The eighth part of speech is the Conjunction.

"Yet, if I mistake not, Virgil and Horace were Romans."

In this sentence, *and* is used to connect the words *Virgil* and *Horace*. *If* is used to connect the parts of the sentence, *I mistake not* and *Virgil and Horace were Romans*. *Yet* is used to connect the whole sentence with something going before. *And*, *if*, *yet*, and other words used as connectives, are called Conjunctions. The word *conjunction* means *a joining together*.

446. A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect words, sentences, or parts of a sentence.

447. LIST OF CONJUNCTIONS.—The following list embraces all the conjunctions in common use:—

although,	either,	neither,	save,	then,
and,	even,	nevertheless,	seeing,	though,
as,	except,	nor,	since,	unless,
because,	for,	notwithstanding,	so,	yet,
both,	if,	or,	than,	whereas,
but,	lest,	provided,	that,	whether.

445. What is the eighth part of speech? Repeat the sentence presented at the commencement of the lesson. In this sentence, what is *and* used for? *If*? *Yet*? What are such words called? What does the word *conjunction* mean? 446. Define a Conjunction. 447. Mention as many of the conjunctions in the list as you

Many of the words in the above list are also used as other parts of speech. They are conjunctions only when they connect words, sentences, or parts of a sentence.

448. *Both*, *either*, *neither*, and *that*, standing for nouns, are adjective pronouns. Used with nouns, to limit their meaning, they are pronominal adjectives. *That* is a relative pronoun, when equivalent to *who* or *which*.

449. *Even*, *then*, and *now*, are generally adverbs. But *even* is a conjunction, when it introduces a repeated word; as, "I, *even* I." *Then* is a conjunction, when it is used as the correlative of *if*. *Now* is a conjunction, when it has no reference to time; as, "*Now* Barabbas was a robber."

450. *Except* and *without* are conjunctions only when used (though not elegantly) for *unless*. *But*, *for*, and *since*, as we have seen in § 429, are sometimes adverbs and prepositions. *Provided* and *seeing* are frequently participles. *So* is a conjunction, only when equivalent to *provided*; "*So* you leave me enough, you may take what you choose." *Or* in the expression *or ever*, meaning *before*, is an adverb; "*or* ever the silver cord be loosed."

451. *As*, representing a noun, after *such*, *same*, *as many*, *so many*, *as much*, and *so much*, has been already mentioned (§ 152) as a relative pronoun. When *as* denotes degree and modifies an adjective or adverb (*as graceful*, *as gracefully*), it is an adverb. When *as* denotes manner and at the same time connects, it is a conjunctive adverb. When it connects simply, it is a conjunction.

452. Observe the following examples:—Both (*conj.*) Alexander and Cæsar were great conquerors, and both (*adj. pro.*) met with an untimely end.—I will not go without (*prep.*) you.—I will not go without (*conj.*) you go.—I would advise you not to become either (*conj.*) a painter or a sculptor, seeing (*conj.*) there is but (*adv.*) little encouragement for (*prep.*) art in this country.—They say that (*conj.*) that (*pro. adj.*) house that (*rel. pro.*) we just passed, is haunted.—Help such as (*rel. pro.*) need help.—Good humor spreads happiness around, just as (*conj. adv.*) the sun sheds its light on all.—Some regard Milton as (*conj.*) the greatest of epic poets.

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can. When alone are the words in the list conjunctions? 448. As what other parts of speech do *both*, *either*, *neither*, and *that* appear, and under what circumstances? 449. What are *even*, *then*, and *now*, for the most part? When is *even* a conjunction? *Then*? *Now*? 450. When alone are *except* and *without* conjunctions? As what, besides conjunctions, do *but*, *for*, and *since* appear? What do we frequently find *provided* and *seeing*? When is *so* a conjunction? What is *or* in the expression *or ever*? 451. When is *as* a relative? When, an adverb? When, a conjunctive adverb? When, a conjunction? 452. Give examples showing these

453. Two conjunctions, connecting different things, may stand together; as, "But, if it rains, I will remain." Here *but* connects the whole sentence with something going before; *if* connects two parts of the sentence, *it rains* and *I will remain.*

454. Complex Conjunctions.—Sentences and parts of sentences are sometimes connected by two or three words, which must be taken together in parsing and called a Complex Conjunction.

The complex conjunctions in most common use are *inasmuch as, forasmuch as, as well, as well as, notwithstanding that, except that, as if, as though* (often inelegantly used for *as if*), and *for all* (when equivalent to *although*).

455. Remember that words must not be taken together and parsed as a complex adverb, preposition, or conjunction, if they retain their individual force and can be parsed separately.

456. Rule XVII.—A conjunction connects words, sentences, or parts of a sentence.

457. Parsing.—To parse a conjunction, mention what it connects, and give Rule XVII. Thus:—

For all our country is so young, it has fostered education and produced both authors and artists of distinguished merit.

For all is a complex conjunction, and connects the two parts of the sentence, *our country is so young* and *it has fostered education and produced both authors and artists of distinguished merit:—Rule*, A conjunction connects words, sentences, or parts of a sentence.

And is a conjunction, and connects two parts of the sentence, *it has fostered education* and *produced both authors and artists of distinguished merit:—Rule*, A conjunction, &c.

Both and **and** are conjunctions, and jointly connect the words *authors* and *artists:—Rule*, A conjunction, &c.

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words as different parts of speech. 453. Give an example of two conjunctions standing together. 454. What is a Complex Conjunction? Mention the most common complex conjunctions. 455. When alone may words be parsed together as a complex adverb, &c.? 456. Recite Rule XVII. 457. Learn the parsing forms.

EXERCISE.

Parse each word:—Except the Lord build the house, they labor in vain that build it.—Cromwell was either a very devout and conscientious man or a great hypocrite.—If an erring man repents, treat him the same as ever.—Such achievements as make a man immortal are seldom performed, nor do opportunities for performing them frequently occur.—Charles I. lost his life, as well as his crown, by his own infatuation, as it were.—As for Mohammed, we are at a loss to decide whether he was an impostor or a fanatic, or a little of both.—It is said that no other plant produces so much nutriment in a given space of ground as the banana.

LESSON LXI.

THE INTERJECTION.

458. The Interjection.—The ninth and last part of speech is the Interjection.

"All aim at happiness; but alas! few hit the mark."

Here the exclamation *alas*, expressing sorrow, is thrown into the sentence without any grammatical relation to the other words. *Alas* and similar words used independently to denote some strong or sudden emotion of the mind, are called Interjections.—Interjections, as their name denotes, may be *thrown in between* connected parts of discourse, but are generally found at the commencement of a sentence, and sometimes even stand alone.

459. An **Interjection** is a word used independently of grammatical relations, to express some strong or sudden emotion of the mind.

460. List of Interjections.—The principal interjections are given below, arranged according to the emotion they express.

1. *Exultation.* Ah! aha! hey! heyday! hurrah! huzza!
2. *Sorrow.* Ah! oh! alas! alack! lackaday! welladay!

458. What is the ninth part of speech? In the sentence *All aim at happiness; but alas! few hit the mark*, what does *alas* express, and how is it used? What are *alas* and words similarly used, called? Where do interjections generally stand? 459. Define an Interjection. 460. Mention the different emotions expressed by in-

8. *Wonder.* Ha! hah! indeed! strange! what! hoity-toity! zounds!
4. *Approval.* Bravo! well-done!
5. *Contempt, aversion.* Faugh! fie! foh! fudge! pugh! pshaw! tut!
6. *Weariness.* Heigh-ho!
7. *Merriment.* Ha, ha, ha! (an imitation of the sound of laughter).
8. *Desire to drive away.* Aroynt! avaunt! begone! off! shoo!
9. *Desire to address or salute.* O, hail! all-hail! welcome!
10. *Desire for one's welfare on taking leave.* Adieu! farewell! good-by!
11. *Desire for attention.* Ho! soho! what ho! hallo! ahoy! lo! hark!
12. *Desire for silence.* Hist! whist! hush! mum!
13. *Desire to stop or interrupt another.* Avast! hold! soft!
14. *Desire for information.* Eh? hey?

461. Interjections are generally followed, as in the above list, by the exclamation-point (!). *Eh* and *hey*, implying a question, are followed by the interrogation-point (?). "You meant to deceive me, hey [that is, *did you*]?"

462. *O* and *oh* are different words. *O*, always a capital, is used in addressing or invoking, and is not usually followed by the exclamation-point. *Oh*, which commences with a small letter except at the beginning of a sentence, expresses sorrow, wonder, or some other strong emotion, and is generally followed by the exclamation-point.

463. Words that commonly appear as nouns, adjectives, verbs, or adverbs, are sometimes used independently as exclamations, under the influence of emotion; as, *heavens! monstrous! see! so!* They thus become interjections. Or, we may regard them as bearing grammatical relations to other words understood, and, supplying what is necessary, still treat them as nouns, adjectives, &c. Thus, we may parse *monstrous* as an adjective relating to *it* understood [*it is monstrous!*]; and *so* as an adverb relating to *can be* understood [*can it be so!*].

464. CONSTRUCTION.—As interjections have no grammatical relations, no rule is needed in parsing them. They neither govern nor are governed, neither agree with other words nor relate to them.

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terjections, and give examples of each class. 461. What stop generally follows interjections? By what are *eh* and *hey* followed? 462. Point out the difference between *O* and *oh*. 463. What words are sometimes used independently as exclamations? What two modes of parsing words thus used are suggested? 464. Why

465. An interjection has nothing to do with the case of a substantive following it, even though such substantive has no grammatical connection with any other word expressed. If the nominative follows, it is the nominative independent. If the possessive or objective follows, it is governed by some word understood, and not by the interjection. Thus:—"Oh unhappy we!" *we* is in the nominative independent. "Oh my!" *my* limits the meaning of the noun *lot* understood [oh my hard lot!], and is therefore in the possessive case. "Ah me!" *me* is governed in the objective case by the verb *pity* understood [Ah! pity me!]—So, *Oh dear me! Oh dear!* that is, *oh! pity dear me!*

466. An interjection is never limited by an infinitive, or used as one of the terms between which a preposition shows the relation. Here again words are understood. "Oh! to be a king!" that is, Oh! *I would like* to be a king!—"Oh for a lodge in some vast wilderness!" that is, Oh! *I long* for a lodge.

467. PARSING.—To parse an interjection, simply state what emotion it implies.

Hurrah for the boys of '76.

Hurrah is an interjection, implying exultation.

For is a preposition, and shows the relation between the noun *boys*, which is its object, and the verb *say* understood [Hurrah! *say I* for the boys of '76]:—*Rule*, A preposition, &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse each word:—Hallo there! come along, each of you!—Alas! there is nothing more sad than to bid adieu to Hope.—Welcome, thou bright-eyed Spring! all-hail!—Oh! the pain, the bliss of dying!—Woe is me! Alack! I am undone!—Ship ahoy!—Quick! up with it, when I give the word.—Zounds! what a two-and-sixpenny coat for a well-to-do gentleman!

"Lo! the poor Indian, whose untutored mind
Sees God in clouds, and hears Him in the wind."

"Would I had seen my dearest foe in Heaven,
Or ever I had seen that day."

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is no rule needed in parsing interjections? 465. With what has an interjection nothing to do? Explain a nominative, possessive, or objective case, following an interjection. 466. In what relations is an interjection never used? 467. How is an interjection parsed? Learn the parsing form.

LESSON LXII.

A PRACTICAL REVIEW.

Correct the errors, and tell what part of speech each word is:—Beware lest thou gettest in difficulty.—If Mohammed were an impostor, he acted his part well.—If I was a king, I would try to rule wisely.—There is no danger of the world (*see Rule XIV., p.* 106) being overflown by a second deluge.—I heard nothing of our friends being attackt.—The allies were astonisht at Napoleon arriving so soon.—If thou beest a mortal, speak.—I (*will* or *shall?*) enter college next year, if nothing prevents.—Try me once more, and I (*will* or *shall?*) do better.—Will I help you to some meat?—Thou need not to fear.—She needs not have revealed my intention.

We be going to London.—After we are ascended, we will obtain a fine view.—The fire of revolution is being kindled throughout Europe.—A society is now being formed.—Having not read your book, I can not express an opinion on its merits.—You won't reach there in time and hadn't ought to think of starting.—It is time to sit about works of charity.—After a hen has lain a dozen eggs, she will set on them if she is permitted.—Very few persons like to set for a portrait.—Stocks have raised since yesterday.—A ledge of rock underlays the town.—Palmerston confest he was wrong.

Time seems to fly rapider now than it did formerly.—Few sing prettier than my cousin.—Your often letters are my only solace.—These paintings are arranged quite tasteful and look very prettily.—Just having arrived, he feels strangely.—Seldom or ever has a more learned work appeared.—Good Latin scholars learn Italian easilier than others.—O! I shudder at the remembrance.—Oh Virtue, how amiable thou art!—We were attackted by pirates, and came near being drownded.

Write out the three chief parts of the following verbs:—Hoe; mutiny; array; horrify; huzza; loathe; avow; blunder; aver; sway; swop; swoop; sweep; cool; stun; stain; stone; unclothe; engrave; uphold; disprove; fix; misunderstand; rise; raise; sit; set; flow; fly; flee; lie (to utter falsehood); lie (to recline); lay; overlay; overlie; outbid; recast; dare (to challenge); withdraw; overfeed; found; ungird; rap (to tap); overrun; wax (to put wax on); weed; whet; heat.

LESSON LXIII.

SENTENCES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THEIR MEANING.

468. A **Sentence** is such an assemblage of words as makes complete sense.

"A rolling stone gathers no moss." This is a sentence, because it is an assemblage of words making complete sense. *Stone* is the grammatical subject (see § 106). *A rolling stone* is the logical subject. *Gathers no moss* is the predicate.

469. We learned in § 227, that in affirming we may either declare, ask, command, or exclaim. Hence, as regards their meaning, sentences are divided into four classes; Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, and Exclamatory.

470. A **Declarative Sentence** is one that declares something; as, "The wind blows."

Declarative sentences are followed by the period (.). All language, whether written or spoken, is made up, for the most part, of declarative sentences.

471. An **Interrogative Sentence** is one that asks a question; as, "Does the wind blow?"

Interrogative sentences are followed by the interrogation-point (?).

472. An interrogative sentence generally commences either with an interrogative pronoun (*who*, *which*, *what*) or with an auxiliary; as, "*Who* goes there?" "*Which* road shall I take?" "*Shall* vice triumph?"

473. A sentence which asserts that a question is asked, is declarative, not interrogative; as, "They asked me what I said."

474. An **Imperative Sentence** is one that expresses a command, an exhortation, an entreaty, or permission,

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468. Define a Sentence. Give an example. 469. In affirming, what may we do? How, therefore, are sentences divided? 470. Define a Declarative Sentence. By what are declarative sentences followed? Of what is all language mostly made up? 471. Define an Interrogative Sentence. By what are interrogative sentences followed? 472. With what do they generally commence? 473. What kind of a sentence is one which asserts that a question is asked? 474. Define an Imperative

and contains a verb in the imperative mood; as, "Let the wind blow." "Turn from your wicked ways." "Thy kingdom come." "Go in safety."

Imperative sentences are followed by the period.

475. Imperative sentences often commence with the verb *let*. Their subject is generally understood. "Let [*thou*] the wind blow." "Turn [*you*] from your wicked ways."

476. A sentence expressing a command, &c., not conveyed by a verb in the imperative mood, is declarative; as, "Thou shalt not kill." "You must depart."

477. An **Exclamatory Sentence** is one that exclaims something; as, "How the wind blows!"

Exclamatory sentences are followed by the exclamation-point (!). They often commence with the pronominal adjective *what* or the adverb *how;* as, "What a fearful spectacle!" "How bright the stars are to-night!"

EXERCISE.

Supply appropriate subjects, so as to form declarative sentences: —1. — is made into butter and cheese. 2. — are raised in New York. 3. — are sold by the bushel. 4. In building ships, — are used. 5. There are many — in every large city. 6. — was the wisest of men. 7. There was a — in the street.

Compose imperative sentences, containing the following expressions in turn; point out the grammatical subject, the logical subject, and the predicate of each:—1. Obedience to parents. 2. All your actions. 3. Wicked men. 4. Niagara Falls. 5. The road to ruin. 6. Be careful. 7. Horseback riding. 8. To resist temptation.

Change first to interrogative, and then to exclamatory sentences, without altering the tense of the verb. [Thus:—"Time is precious." *Interrogative.* Is time precious? *Exclamatory.* How precious time is!] 1. Almonds are produced abundantly in Spain and Italy. 2. Death will soon come to all. 3. Many important discoveries have been made by Americans. 4. On a hot day, a

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Sentence. By what are imperative sentences followed? 475. With what do they often commence? 476. What kind of a sentence is one that expresses a command but does not contain a verb in the imperative? 477. Define an Exclamatory Sentence. By what are exclamatory sentences followed? How do they often commence?

shower is refreshing to the whole vegetable creation. 5. The yew-tree has a sad look. 6. It is singular that Africa has produced so few great men. 7. Fine velvet is made in Italy. 8. Peter the Great did much to elevate and civilize the Russians. 9. America would suffer greatly, if her system of free education were abolished. 10. Spain has declined much in power and importance since the discovery of America.

Compose five interrogative sentences containing interrogative pronouns.

LESSON LXIV.

SENTENCES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THEIR FORM.

478. MEMBERS.—Some sentences can be divided into two or more parts of equal rank, entirely independent of each other in construction and sense. Such parts are called Members. Every member of a sentence has its own subject and predicate.

479. COMPOUND AND SIMPLE SENTENCES.—Sentences that can be divided into two or more members, are called Compound Sentences. Those that can not be so divided, are called Simple Sentences.

"A man's pride shall bring him low." This sentence expresses but one thought, and can not be divided into two or more members; it is therefore *simple*. If we join to it another member, with or without a conjunction, we express two complete thoughts and make the sentence *compound*. Thus:—"A man's pride shall bring him low; but honor shall uphold the humble in spirit." It will be seen that each of these two members has a subject and predicate of its own.

480. ADJUNCTS AND CLAUSES.—Members are of equal rank; but sentences, whether simple or compound, may

478. How can some sentences be divided? What are such parts of sentences called? What does every member have? 479. What are Compound Sentences? What are Simple Sentences? Illustrate these definitions. 480. What besides

contain subordinate divisions. These are distinguished as Adjuncts and Clauses.

An Adjunct has already been defined as consisting of a preposition, its object, and the words that modify the latter.

A **Clause** is a subordinate division of a sentence, containing a verb but not expressing a complete thought, and generally used to modify some leading word with which it is connected in construction.

481. KINDS OF CLAUSES.—Various kinds of clauses occur in sentences. The most common are distinguished as Substantive, Relative, Participial, Adverbial, Causal, Comparative, and Hypothetical.

482. A **Substantive Clause** is one that performs the part of a noun; as, "*To rule one's anger* is well; *to prevent it* is better." "The proposal *that we should cross in boats* was at once rejected."

483. A **Relative Clause** is one that contains a relative pronoun expressed or understood; as, "There are few *of whom it can be said, 'These are truly happy.'*" "Moses is the meekest man [*that*] *we read of in Scripture.*"

484. A **Participial Clause** is one that contains a participle; as, "Figures, *when well chosen*, embellish discourse."

485. An **Adverbial Clause** is one that performs the part of an adverb, generally expressing time, place, or manner; as, "Figures, *when they are well chosen*, embellish discourse." "*To be sure*, he has written some good poetry."

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members may sentences contain? Define an Adjunct. Define a Clause. 481. Enumerate the kinds of clauses that most frequently occur. 482. Define a Substantive Clause. 483. Define a Relative Clause. 484. Define a Participial Clause. 485. Define an Adverbial Clause. In what respect does an adjunct resemble an adverbial

An adjunct, also, frequently expresses time, place, or manner, but does not, like an adverbial clause, contain a verb. "*In the world* (adjunct) we have tribulation." "*While we are in the world* (adverbial clause), we have tribulation."

486. A **Causal Clause** is one that expresses the purpose or end for which anything is or is done; as, "Boys go to school, *to study and improve their minds.*" "Boys go to school, *in order that they may*," &c.

487. A **Comparative Clause** is one that contains *as* or *than* followed by the latter of two terms compared; as, "Virtue is as rare *as it is admirable.*" "Nothing more impairs authority *than a too frequent use of it.*"

The verb of a comparative clause is often understood, as in the last example:—"Nothing more impairs authority than a too frequent use of it [*impairs* it]."

488. A **Hypothetical Clause** is one that expresses a supposition or something conceived as possible; as, "*If elephants were much larger*, they could not support their own weight."

Though, *lest*, and *that*, followed by the subjunctive mood, and *if* with any mood, introduce hypothetical clauses. "*Though the wicked man heap up silver as dust*, he shall not enjoy it." "Do not carry too much sail, *lest you sink your vessel.*" "Take care *that you do not fall into bad company.*"

489. The Base.—The Base of a sentence is the part that expresses the leading idea. Like a single word, it may be modified by an adjunct or clause.

"Do not carry too much sail, lest you sink your vessel." The base of this sentence is the part that expresses the leading idea, *do not carry too much sail.* It is modified by the hypothetical clause *lest you sink your vessel.*

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clause, and in what does it differ? Illustrate this. 486. Define a Causal Clause. 487. Define a Comparative Clause. What is often understood in a comparative clause? 488. Define a Hypothetical Clause. How are hypothetical clauses introduced? 489. What is the Base of a sentence? How may the base be modified?

490. VOCATIVE EXPRESSIONS.—The base of a sentence may also be modified by a Vocative Expression, thrown in like an interjection, without modifying any particular word.

491. Among vocative Expressions are embraced,

1. The name of an object addressed, with its modifiers; as, "*Gentlemen of the jury*, I will detain you no longer."

2. A substantive used independently as an exclamation, with its modifiers; as, "My native city, *oh woe unutterable!* is in ruins."

EXERCISE.

Tell what kind of a sentence each is,—whether simple or compound, whether declarative, &c. If compound, specify the members. Point out the vocative expressions, the adjuncts, and clauses; and tell what kind of a clause each is:—How soon Love goes out at the gate, when Suspicion enters!—He who receives a good turn should never forget it; he who does one should never remember it.—Will not a true friend, like a mirror, discover to you your own defects?—My son, carry not a sword in your tongue, to injure another's reputation.—If we did but know it, to be angry is to revenge the fault of others upon ourselves.—It is a good thing, my melancholy friend, to laugh now and then; and, if a straw can tickle a man, it is an instrument of happiness.—Conquering wherever he went, Alexander at last believed himself invincible.

LESSON LXV.

STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES.

492. COMPOUND SUBJECTS AND PREDICATES.—A simple sentence may have a compound subject,—that is,

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Give an example. 490. By what else may the base be modified? 491. What are embraced among vocative expressions?

492. What is meant by a simple sentence's having a compound subject? What

two or more grammatical subjects connected by a conjunction or not; as, "*Riches, worlds*, would not induce me to be a king." "*Alexander* and *Cæsar* were great conquerors."

A simple sentence may have a compound predicate, —that is, one that consists of two parts of equal rank; as, "Alexander *was a great conqueror, yet met with an untimely end.*"

A simple sentence may have a compound subject and a compound predicate; as, "Alexander and Cæsar were great conquerors, yet met with an untimely end."

The example just given is not a compound sentence. But we can easily make it so, by inserting a subject for the last part of the predicate, which then becomes an independent member. "Alexander and Cæsar were great conquerors, yet *both* met with an untimely end." Observe that no sentence is compound unless it can be divided into two parts of equal rank, each expressing a complete thought and having its own subject and predicate.

493. A verb is sometimes understood in the predicate of one or more of the members of a compound sentence; as, "A clear conscience is the best law, honesty [*is*] the best policy, and temperance [*is*] the best physic."

494. Compound Sentences.—The members of a compound sentence may all be of the same class, as in the last example. These members are all declarative, and the sentence is therefore called a Compound Declarative Sentence.

But the members of a compound sentence sometimes belong to different classes; as, "Old age has deformities enough of its own; do not add to them the deformity of vice." Here the first member is declarative; the second, imperative.

is meant by its having a compound predicate? May it have both? Give an example. Convert the example just given into a compound sentence. When only is a sentence compound? 493. What is sometimes understood in the predicate? 494. What difference subsists in compound sentences, as regards the class of their members? What do we call a sentence whose members belong to different

Such a sentence we call a Compound Sentence with Dissimilar Members.

495. PRINCIPAL PARTS.—Every simple sentence and every member of a compound sentence has at least two principal parts,—the grammatical subject and the leading verb. "The cold winds blow." The grammatical subject *winds* and the leading verb *blow* are the two principal parts.

Most sentences and members have a third principal part, besides the two just mentioned.

496. If the leading verb has an object, this object constitutes the third principal part. "Cold winds blow up storms." Here are three principal parts,—the grammatical subject *winds*, the leading verb *blow*, and the object *storms*.

497. If the leading verb has no object, it is sometimes followed by a substantive referring to the same person or thing as the grammatical subject, and called the Predicate Nominative. Or, it may be followed by an adjective belonging to the grammatical subject, and called the Predicate Adjective.

The predicate nominative and the predicate adjective constitute a third principal part in sentences containing them.

"Washington was unanimously elected commander-in-chief." Here are three principal parts,—the grammatical subject *Washington*, the leading verb *was elected*, and the predicate nominative *commander-in-chief*.

"Washington was at all times incorruptible." Here again are three principal parts,—the grammatical subject *Washington*, the leading verb *was*, and the predicate adjective *incorruptible*.

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classes? 495. How many principal parts must every simple sentence and every member of a compound sentence have? What are these two principal parts? How many principal parts do most sentences and members have? 496. In some sentences, what constitutes the third principal part? 497. What, in other sentences? Give examples.

EXERCISE.

Classify the sentences; mention their principal parts. Select the compound subjects and predicates:—Galileo and Milton both ended their days in total blindness.—Inexhaustible are the beauties of nature; what can equal them in variety?—Miss Caroline Herschel, sister of the great astronomer, aided her brother in his labors, and herself discovered no less than five comets.—Love your enemies; can anything be more godlike?—Men and women too often play their part in life as if there were no hereafter.—Pekin and Jeddo are the largest cities in Asia.

LESSON LXVI.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

498. By the **Analysis** of a sentence is meant the process of resolving it into its simple parts.

499. In analyzing a sentence, state its class; select its principal parts; tell by what words, adjuncts, or clauses each is modified, and by what these modifiers are themselves modified, resolving adjuncts into the words that compose them, and clauses into their principal parts and modifiers. If the sentence is compound, treat each member in turn as just described.

FORMS OF ANALYSIS.

No one knew how to use gold more effectually than Philip, king of Macedon.

A simple declarative sentence.

The principal parts are the grammatical subject *one* and the leading verb *knew*.

The grammatical subject *one* is modified by the adjective *no*.

The leading verb *knew* is modified by the adverb *how*, which is itself

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498. What is meant by the Analysis of a sentence? 499. In analyzing a sentence, what must be done? If the sentence is compound, how do you proceed? Learn the forms of analysis.

modified by the infinitive *to use*. *To use* is modified by its object *gold*, and the adverb *effectually*, which is itself modified by the adverb *more;* and *more* is in turn modified by the comparative clause *than Philip, king of Macedon*, connected with it by the conjunction *than*. The principal parts of this clause are the grammatical subject *Philip* and the leading verb *knew* understood. The grammatical subject *Philip* is modified by the noun *king* in apposition with it, which is itself modified by the adjunct *of Macedon*, consisting of the preposition *of* and its object *Macedon*.

When bad men combine, the good must associate; else they will fall, one by one, an unpitied sacrifice, in a contemptible struggle.

A compound declarative sentence. The first member is *when bad men combine, the good must associate*. The second member is *else they will fall, one by one, an unpitied sacrifice, in a contemptible struggle.*

The principal parts of the first member are the grammatical subject *men* understood and the leading verb *must associate.*

The grammatical subject *men* is modified by the article *the* and the adjective *good.*

The leading verb *must associate* is modified by the adverbial clause *when bad men combine*, connected with it by the conjunctive adverb *when.* The principal parts of this clause are its grammatical subject *men*, modified by the adjective *bad*, and the leading verb *combine.*

The principal parts of the second member are the grammatical subject *they* and the leading verb *will fall.*

The grammatical subject *they* is modified, 1. By the noun *man* understood, in apposition with it. *Man* is modified by the adjective *one*, and this in turn by the adjunct *by one*, consisting of the preposition *by* and the adjective *one* modifying the noun *man* understood, the object of the preposition. 2. By the noun *sacrifice* in apposition with it, which is modified by the article *an* and the adjective *unpitied.*

The leading verb *will fall* is modified, 1. By the adverb *else.* 2. By the adjunct *in a contemptible struggle*, consisting of the preposition *in* and its object *struggle*, which is modified by the article *a* and the adjective *contemptible.*

Tell me with whom you associate, and I will tell you what you are.

A compound sentence with dissimilar members. The first member, *tell me with whom you associate*, is imperative. The second member, *and I will tell you what you are*, is declarative.

The principal parts of the first member are the grammatical subject *thou* understood and the leading verb *tell*.

The grammatical subject *thou* has no modifiers.

The leading verb *tell* is modified, 1. By the adjunct [*to*] *me*, consisting of the preposition *to* understood and its object *me*. 2. By the clause *with whom you associate*. The principal parts of this clause are its grammatical subject *you*, which has no modifiers, and its leading verb *associate*, modified by the adjunct *with whom*, consisting of the preposition *with* and its object *whom*.

The second member is connected with the first by the conjunction *and*. Its principal parts are the grammatical subject *I* and the leading verb *will tell*.

The grammatical subject *I* has no modifiers.

The leading verb *will tell* is modified, 1. By the adjunct [*to*] *you*, consisting of the preposition *to* understood and its object *you*. 2. By the clause *what you are*. The principal parts of this clause are the grammatical subject *you*, the leading verb *are*, and the predicate nominative *what*,—all unmodified.

EXERCISE.

Analyze according to the above forms:—The age of chivalry has departed.—Is not contentment a pearl of great price?—The way to fame, like the way to Heaven, passes through much tribulation.—The passage to the East Indies around the Cape of Good Hope was discovered in 1497, by a Portuguese navigator.—Omnibuses are said to have originated in Paris, not long after the commencement of the present century.—Amid all thy pursuits and pleasures, remember that thou art mortal.—How few persons know what isinglass is made of!—I do not think you can tell me what a sponge is, can you?—Do not wait to strike, till the iron is hot; can you not make it hot yourself by striking?

LESSON LXVII.

ANALYSIS (CONTINUED)

500. Quotations.—A Quotation is a word or passage taken, or represented as taken, from some writer or speaker.

501. One sentence is often incorporated in another as

500. What is a Quotation? 501. What two modes are there of introducing a

a quotation. When introduced by the conjunction *that*, the quoted sentence with *that* forms a clause modifying some leading word, and in analyzing must be treated like other clauses. When brought in without *that*, the quoted sentence generally modifies some preceding verb, and is itself to be analyzed like any other sentence.

502. FORMS OF ANALYSIS.—Further models follow:—

Socrates, remembering his wife Xanthippe's temper, called beauty "a short-lived tyranny"; and is it not both short-lived and a tyranny?

A compound sentence with dissimilar members. The first member, *Socrates, remembering his wife Xanthippe's temper, called beauty "a short-lived tyranny,"* is declarative. The second member, *and is it not both short-lived and a tyranny*, is interrogative.

The principal parts of the first member are the grammatical subject *Socrates*, the leading verb *called*, and its object *beauty*.

The grammatical subject *Socrates* is modified by the participial clause *remembering his wife Xanthippe's temper*. This clause consists of the participle *remembering*, and its object *temper*, which is modified by the possessive *Xanthippe's;* and this is modified by the noun *wife* in apposition with it, and this in turn by the possessive *his*.

The leading verb *called* has no modifiers.

The object *beauty* is modified by the noun *tyranny* in apposition with it, which is itself modified by the article *a* and the adjective *short-lived*.

The second member is connected with the first by the conjunction *and*. Its principal parts are the grammatical subject *it*, which has no modifiers; the leading verb *is*, modified by the adverb *not;* and the predicate adjective *short-lived*, and the predicate nominative *tyranny* (modified by the article *a*), which are connected by the conjunctions *both* and *and*.

The Spectator justly remarks that, "Had Cicero himself pronounced one of his orations with a blanket about his shoulders, more people would have laughed at his dress than have admired his eloquence."

A simple declarative sentence.

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quotation? How are quoted sentences to be treated in analyzing? 502 Learn the forms.

The principal parts are the grammatical subject *Spectator* and the leading verb *remarks*.

The grammatical subject *Spectator* is modified by the article *the*.

The leading verb *remarks* is modified, 1. By the adverb *justly*. 2. By the clause *that*, "*Had Cicero himself pronounced one of his orations*," &c. This clause consists of a quoted sentence introduced by the conjunction *that*.

The quoted sentence *Had Cicero*, &c., is a simple declarative sentence.

Its principal parts are the grammatical subject *people* and the leading verb *would have laughed*.

The grammatical subject *people* is modified by the adjective *more*, which is itself modified by the comparative clause *than have admired his eloquence*, connected with it by the conjunction *than*. The principal parts of this clause are the grammatical subject *people*, the leading verb *have admired*, and its object *eloquence*, modified by the possessive *his*.

The leading verb *would have laughed* is modified by the adjunct *at his dress*, consisting of the preposition *at* and its object *dress*, which is modified by the possessive *his*.

The base of the quoted sentence is modified by the hypothetical clause *had Cicero himself pronounced one of his orations with a blanket about his shoulders*. The principal parts of this clause are the grammatical subject *Cicero*, the leading verb *had pronounced*, and its object *oration* understood. The grammatical subject *Cicero* is modified by the pronoun *himself* in apposition with it. The leading verb *had pronounced* is modified by the adjunct *with a blanket*, consisting of the preposition *with* and its object *blanket*, which is modified, 1. By the article *a*. 2. By the adjunct *about his shoulders*, consisting of the preposition *about* and its object *shoulders*, which is modified by the possessive *his*. The object *oration* understood is modified, 1. By the adjective *one*. 2. By the adjunct *of his orations*, consisting of the preposition *of* and its object *orations*, modified by the possessive *his*.

"*That creditors should have better memories than debtors*," *wittily observes a distinguished writer*, "*is not to be wondered at.*"

A simple declarative sentence.

The principal parts are the grammatical subject *writer* and the leading verb *observes*.

The grammatical subject *writer* is modified by the article *a* and the adjective *distinguished*.

The leading verb *observes* is modified by the adverb *wittily* and the quoted sentence *that creditors should have better memories than debtors is not to be wondered at*.

This quoted sentence is simple and declarative. Its principal parts are the grammatical subject, which is the substantive clause *that creditors should have better memories than debtors*, and the leading verb *is*.

The principal parts of the substantive clause which forms the grammatical subject are its grammatical subject *creditors*, which has no modifiers; the leading verb *should have*, also unmodified; and the object *memories*, which is modified by the adjective *better*, and this is itself modified by the comparative clause *than debtors*, connected with it by the conjunction *than*. The principal parts of this clause are the grammatical subject *debtors* and the leading verb *have* understood.

The leading verb is modified by the infinitive *to be wondered at*, and this is itself modified by the adverb *not*.

Thoughtless man, do not temperance and self-restraint save you from many evils and promote your happiness?

A simple interrogative sentence.

The principal parts are the grammatical subjects *temperance* and *self-restraint*, the leading verbs *do save* and *promote*, and the objects *you* and *happiness*, belonging respectively to the leading verbs *do save* and *promote*.

The grammatical subjects, *temperance* and *self-restraint*, are connected by the conjunction *and*, and have no modifiers.

The leading verbs *do save* and *promote* are connected by the conjunction *and*, and are both modified by the adverb *not*. The leading verb *do save* is further modified by the adjunct *from many evils*, consisting of the preposition *from* and its object *evils*, which is modified by the adjective *many*.

The object *you* has no modifiers. The object *happiness* is modified by the possessive *your*.

The base of the sentence is modified by the vocative expression *thoughtless man*, consisting of *man*, the name of an object addressed, and the adjective *thoughtless*, by which it is modified.

EXERCISE.

Analyze the following sentences:—If I am not mistaken, the best nutmegs and pepper come from Sumatra and the Moluccas.—How utterly ignorant of human nature is he who has passed his days in his study alone, without mingling with the world!—Cast thy bread upon the waters; for thou shalt find it after many days.—"What did you do during the summer?" asked an ant of a grasshopper, who petitioned for food when winter was about setting in. "I played and sung," answered the grasshopper. "Well,

now dance," was the ant's response.—The following sentence is inscribed on Gen. Putnam's tomb-stone: "He dared to lead where any dared to follow."

LESSON LXVIII.

ELLIPSIS.

503. Ellipsis.—For the sake of brevity, we often omit words that are not essential to the sense, but are necessary in parsing, to explain the government, agreement, or relation of the words expressed. Such an omission is called an Ellipsis.

The words omitted are said to be *understood*. In parsing, they must be supplied as they are needed.

504. *Examples.*—As ellipses often occasion difficulty in parsing, it will be well to attend to the following examples. They will serve to explain certain common constructions and others like them.

1. Ellipsis of the subject of a verb.

As regards the Crusades, they were certainly beneficial to Europe. [Here there is an ellipsis of the subject *it*, with which the verb *regards* agrees in the third person, singular number:—As *it* regards the Crusades, &c.]

The names of the twelve tribes were as follows. [In this sentence, *as* is a conjunctive adverb, and *follows* agrees with its subject *it* understood, in the third, singular. To make it plural, *follow*, because *names* is plural, would be wrong.]

As far as [*it*] concerns England, she is a loser by the bargain.

Act as [*it*] seems best. Remember [*thou*] thy Creator.

[Whether *I*] Sink or swim, [whether *I*] survive or perish, I am for the Declaration. Do not buy more coal than [*what*] is needed.

In future ages, men may need all the land [*that*] there is.

Will you go or stay? [*I* will] Stay.

Our young friend is more extravagant than [*it*] is good for him [to be].

503. What is meant by an Ellipsis? What is said of the words omitted? What must be done in parsing? 504. Give examples of the ellipsis of the subject

2. Ellipsis of the noun to which an adjective relates.

The honorable [*body*] the Legislature. Charles the Simple [*king*].

The virtuous [*persons*] are happy. The professedly virtuous [*persons*] are not always really so. Even the strongest [*persons*] will sometimes faint by the way. [*Virtuous* being modified in the second sentence by the adverb *professedly*, and *strongest* being in the superlative degree, they are evidently adjectives relating to a noun understood, and not themselves nouns.]

To be [a] virtuous [*person*] is to be [a] happy [*person*].

3. Ellipsis of the noun modified by a substantive in the possessive case.

It is thine [thy *business*] to command.—There shall nothing die of all that is the children's [*property*] of Israel.—I shall stop at Thomson's [*shop*], to get some paper.

4. Ellipsis of the relative.

Moses is the meekest man [*that*] we read of in the Bible.—It is infinite wisdom [*that*] orders all things here below.

5. Ellipsis of the antecedent of a relative.

[*Those*] Who utter slanders do false witness bear.—[*Him*] Whom he loveth, he chasteneth.

6. Ellipsis of a verb.

[*Get*] Up and [*go*] away.—[It *is*] No matter what I do, I can not please you.—Washington loved very few as well as [he *loved*] La Fayette.—The enemy [*being*] at the gates, there was no time for delay

7. Ellipsis of a preposition.

The army were ready to offer [*to*] Washington a crown.—Few can paint like [*to*] Titian.—Cut [*for*] me some bread.—She sits [*on*] a horse well.—A great many [*of*] rogues. [In this expression, *many* is a noun.]

8. Ellipsis of a conjunction.

To the intent [*that*] ye may believe.—Were I [*if* I were] there, I should make the attempt.

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of a verb. Give examples of the ellipsis of a noun to which an adjective relates. Give examples of the ellipsis of a noun modified by a substantive in the possessive case. Give examples of the ellipsis of the relative. Of the antecedent of a rela-

505. In a fragmentary style, ellipses, even of several words, are frequent. This will be seen in the following extract from one of Douglas Jerrold's "Caudle Curtain Lectures," which will serve as an exercise in elliptical parsing. Each sentence may be analyzed as well as parsed.

MRS. CAUDLE DWELLS ON CAUDLE'S "CRUEL NEGLECT" OF HER ON BOARD THE RED ROVER.

"Caudle, have you looked under the bed? *What for?* Bless the man! Why, for thieves, to be sure. Do you suppose I'd sleep in a strange bed without? Don't tell me it's nonsense! I shouldn't sleep a wink all night. Not that you'd care for that; not that you'd — hush! I'm sure I hear somebody. No, it's not a bit like a mouse. Yes; that's like you; laugh! It would be no laughing matter, if — I'm sure there *is* somebody.

"— Yes, Mr. Caudle; now I *am* satisfied. Any other man would have got up and looked himself; especially after my sufferings on board that nasty ship. But catch you stirring! Oh, no! You'd let me lie here and be robbed and killed, for what you'd care. Why, you're not going to sleep! What do you say? *It's the strange air — and you're always sleepy in a strange air?* That shows the feelings you have after what I've gone through. And yawning, too, in that brutal manner!

"No, I couldn't leave my temper at home. I dare say! Because for once in your life you've brought me out—yes, I say once, or two or three times, it isn't more; because, as I say, you once bring me out, I'm to be a slave and say nothing. Pleasure, indeed! A great deal of pleasure I'm to have, if I'm to hold my tongue!

"Dear me! if the bed doesn't spin round and dance about! I've got all that filthy ship in my head! No, I shan't be well in the morning. You needn't groan in that way, Mr. Caudle, disturbing the people, perhaps, in the next room. It's a mercy I'm alive, I'm sure. If once I wouldn't have given all the world for anybody to have thrown me overboard! What are you

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ive. Of a verb. Of a preposition. Of a conjunction. 505. In what kind of style are ellipses frequent?

smacking your lips at, Mr. Caudle? But I know what you mean —of course, you'd never have stirred to stop 'em; not you. And then you might have known that the wind would have blown to-day; but that's why you came.

"What do you say? *A good deal my own fault? I took too much dinner?* Well, you are a man! If I took more than the breast and the leg of that young goose — a thing, I may say, just out of the shell — with the slightest bit of stuffing, I'm a wicked woman. What do you say? *Lobster salad?* La! how can you speak of it? A month-old baby would have eaten more. What? *Gooseberry pie?* Well, if you'll name that, you'll name anything. Ate too much indeed! Do you think I was going to pay for a dinner, and eat nothing? No, Mr. Caudle; it's a good thing for you that I know a little more of the value of money than that.

"It's a mercy that some of the dear children were not drowned; not that their father would have cared. Peter was as near through one of the holes as — *It's no such thing?* It's very well for you to say so, but you know what an inquisitive boy he is, and how he likes to wander among steam-engines. No, I won't let you sleep. What a man you are! Go to sleep, indeed! as if one could never have a little rational conversation.

"A miserable creature they must have thought me in the ladies' cabin, with nobody coming down to see how I was. *You came a dozen times?* No, Caudle, that won't do. I know better. And when I was so ill that I didn't know a single thing that was going on about me, and you never came. Every other woman's husband was there — ha! twenty times. And what must have been my feelings to hear 'em tapping at the door, and making all sorts of kind inquiries — something like husbands!—and I was left to be ill alone! Yes, and you want to get me into an argument. You want to know if I was so ill that I knew nothing, how could I know that you didn't come to the cabin door. That's just like your aggravating way. But I'm not to be caught in that manner, Caudle. No."

"It is very possible," writes Caudle, "that she talked two hours more: but, happily, the wind got suddenly up — the waves bellowed — and, soothed by the sweet lullaby, I somehow fell asleep."

LESSON LXIX.

EXPLANATION OF DIFFICULT CONSTRUCTIONS.

506. Some of the most common expressions involve difficulties in parsing. Many of these have already been explained; some more are presented below, with suggestions to aid the pupil. Let portions of convenient length be assigned as lessons, and each sentence be analyzed and parsed.

How much [*adj.*, relating to *money* understood] is it worth [*prep.*]?—John Jacob Astor was worth nearly twenty millions [object of the prep. *worth*] of dollars.—It is worth while to go to Strasburg, just to see the Cathedral.—Victory over one's self is a victory worth talking of [*part.* used independently, § 440].

The wise man is always ready for the ups [*noun*] and downs of life.—Every now and then we heard the cannon boom [*infin.*].—Thy throne is established of old [*adj.*, relating to *time* understood].—Forgive me this once [*noun*, obj. case, Rule V.].—All [*adv.*] at once the sky was overcast.—The news soon spread all over the country.—If honor is left, all [*noun*] is not lost.

What [*adv.*, equivalent to *partly*] by force, what by policy, he took fifty castles.—What with hunger, what with fatigue, we could advance no farther.—What [difference would it make] though none live my innocence to tell?—What [would be the consequence] if an insurrection should break out?—What ho! warriors, have you seen any one of my sisters wandering this way [Rule V.]?

Somehow or other [*adv.*], he is always first.—Children manage to move about in some way or other [*adj.*], even if it is on all-fours [*noun*].—You are beaten all hollow [*adv.*]; for shame!—I wrote a month ago [*adj.*].—Of the cattle of the children of Israel, died not one [animal].—We have more than [what] heart could wish.—My friend the doctor's wife has been taken seriously ill.

Full many a flower is born to blush unseen. [*Many* is an *adj.* and relates to *flower*, which is singular though more than one are meant. This is because *many a* has a distributive force, like *every*; we say *every man*, though we mean more than one — *all*

men.]—By the bye [*noun*], have you e'er a [corrupted into *ăry*] newspaper to lend?—We saw ne'er a [corrupted into *năry*] man during our whole ride. [*E'er a* is equivalent to *any; ne'er a*, to *no*. These constructions are analogous to *many a;* and *e'er* and *ne'er* are adjectives.]

He is all the time saying that *such and such* [*adj.*] a person is to be admired.—What did you find in the drawer? A ten-dollar [*adj.*] bill [object of *found* understood], a bright-red ribbon, and a twenty-inch rule.—My health is so-so [*adj.*]; how is yours? —His own [*adj.*, relating to *people* understood] received him not.— They are all gone [for *have gone*, § 356]. So much the better [*adj.*, relating to *it* understood].

Ellipses, as [it] has been said above, often occasion difficulties in parsing.—[I wish you] Good morning, Harriet; what a fine day it is!—Long life to the republic!—[Though we] Go where we may, we find traces of sin everywhere.—Go or stay, I am satisfied. —To redeem such a sinner as I [am], is indeed a triumph of grace. —We have progressed further in art than the ancients [progressed]. —They hurt themselves more than [they hurt] us. [In all such constructions *than* is a conjunction, and the case of the word following it depends on something understood.]

A hundred [*collective noun*, almost always construed with a plural verb] people [object of *of* understood] may be killed, yet nobody is to blame.—A few railroads will soon open up the country. —A great many houses are to let in Twenty-eighth Street.—Have you a high-pressure steamboat to sell?—They are so much alike you can not tell *which* is *which* [*inter. pro.*].—Every thing depends on [*prep.*, having for its object the substantive clause that follows] who your friends are.—At the time that I was there, not a ship was in port.—A reward shall be given to whoever [§ 163] shall arrest the criminal.

Science' [Rule III.] self could wish no more devoted follower. —The keeper of the forest's daughter has arrived. [More elegantly, *the daughter of the keeper of the forest.* As first expressed, *keeper of the forest's* must be looked upon as a complex noun in the possessive case.]—Those lips of Washington's [§ 130] are now silent forever.—That portrait of my father's needs varnishing.—He has bought more books than [what] are needed.—I shall lay in only as many books as [*rel. pro.*] are needed.

They could do nothing except pray [infinitive, limiting the meaning of the prep. *except*].—If I were you, I would do nothing but wait in patience.—It is likely to injure rather than benefit [infin., limiting the meaning of the conj. *than*) us.—Polycarp died rather than give up his faith.—He could not do otherwise than say what he did.—The hamster rat, rather than yield, will allow itself to be beaten to pieces.

We can but rejoice.—We can not but rejoice. [The latter sentence expresses the same idea as the former, but more strongly. Two negatives usually nullify each other and make the sentence affirmative, but here they strengthen the negation. *But* is an adverb.]—Cyrus did his utmost to please his friends.

I had as lief cross the ocean as not. [*Had cross* is evidently a corruption; for the auxiliary *had* should be combined with the participle *crossed*, and not the root of the verb *cross*. The meaning, as well as the correct form of this expression, is *I* WOULD *as lief cross the ocean as not*. Parse, therefore, as follows: *had cross* is a corruption for *would cross*, potential mood, imperfect tense, &c. *I had* may have come thus to be confounded with *I would*, in consequence of the frequent abbreviation of both expressions into *I'd*.]—You had best not disturb her.—A good man had rather conceal another's faults than make them known.—You had better first see whether you are invulnerable yourself.

Every one tried to make much [*noun*] of La Fayette.—Never make light [*noun*] of serious things.—Cursed be he that setteth light by his father or his mother.—The whole community set store by an honest man.—He is so awkward that people are apt to make fun of him.—Before going, make [*intrans.*] sure [*adj.*, relating to *you* understood, the subject of *make*] of the means of returning.—The village boys make quite free with our orchard.—The Hindoo women make away with their children, by throwing them into the Ganges.—I will make bold to tell you that you fall far short of my expectations.—Have you taken possession of your house?

[*To make much of* and several of the similar expressions just presented are sometimes thrown into the passive form, by taking the object of the preposition for a subject and incorporating preposition and noun with the verb. Thus: *La Fayette was made much of by everybody*. Here *was made much of* conveys a single

idea—*was caressed*—and must be parsed as a transitive verb in the passive voice. Taken separately, the words can not be satisfactorily parsed. Anomalous as this idiom is, it is used by good writers.]—Serious things should not be made light of.—Nobody likes to be made fun of.—Many children are made away with every year by the Hindoo women.—Salamanca was next taken possession of by the British.

We took it for [a] granted [thing] that you had started.—Have they given up the child for [a] lost [child]?—I can not help thinking that you are a little premature.—We have a pleasant world to live in [*adv.*].—You have as fine a house as anybody need want to live in [*prep.*, having the relative *as* for its object].—It is a matter that you will gain nothing by alluding to.

Maugre [*prep.*] all you can say, I am resolved not to go.—Inside the building, despite our efforts, all was confusion.—I took the cars for Buffalo, via [*prep.*] Dunkirk, but on arriving there found myself minus my purse.—A fire came out from before the Lord.—Six times three is eighteen. [That is, Three taken six times is eighteen. *Three*, the subject, is a noun in the nominative; *times* is in the objective, according to Rule V.]

LESSON LXX.

SUBJECT.—NOMINATIVE INDEPENDENT.—FALSE SYNTAX.

507. SYNTAX.—The following principles apply to words combined in sentences:—

1. One word may agree with another, as verb with subject.

2. One word may relate to another, as adjective to substantive.

3. A word may be put in a certain case on account of its relation to some other, as the object of a verb in the objective.

507. State the principles that apply to words combined in sentences.

4. Usage often requires the words to be arranged in a certain way.

508. The word *syntax* means *a putting together*. That part of grammar which treats of the relations and arrangement of words put together is called Syntax.

The rules that bear on these relations are called the Rules of Syntax. Violations of these rules are called False Syntax.

509. In the preceding lessons have been presented, as they were needed in parsing, seventeen rules of syntax. These will now be reconsidered in detail. Their application in different cases will be explained, and additional principles relating to the construction and arrangement of sentences will be laid down. The various errors into which there is a liability to fall in speaking or writing, will be presented for correction under the several rules, as False Syntax.

The reasons for making the corrections should in all cases be given, according to the models. After the sentences are corrected, they may be analyzed and parsed, in whole or in part, at the pleasure of the teacher.

RULE I.—Subject.

510. A substantive that is the subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

511. Arrangement.—The subject generally precedes its verb.

512. Exceptions.—In the following cases, the subject comes after the verb; if the tense is compound, after the first auxiliary:—

1. When the verb is in the imperative mood, first or second person; as, "Pause *ye* now." "Repent *ye*."

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508. What does the word *syntax* mean? In grammar, what is meant by Syntax? What is meant by the Rules of Syntax? What is False Syntax? 509. Why are the rules of syntax now repeated? 510. Recite Rule I., relating to the subject. 511. How does the subject generally stand, as regards its verb? 512. What four exceptions are noted? What is sometimes the effect of placing the subject after

2. When the verb is used interrogatively; as, "Are *you* safe?" "Will *Howard* ever be forgotten?"

3. When *if* or *though*, denoting a supposition, is suppressed; as, "Had the *British* been wise, they would have listened to the colonists [for, *If the British had been wise*, &c.]."

4. When a wish is expressed with the potential; as, "May *justice* triumph!"

The subject may, in other cases, particularly in poetry, follow its verb, —and often with fine effect; as, "How beautiful is *nature* " "Let there be light, said *God*, and there was *light*."

RULE II.—NOMINATIVE INDEPENDENT.

513. A substantive used independently is in the nominative case.

EXAMPLES.—*He* being away, the work suffers.—Conscript *fathers*, with you it rests to punish guilt.—Oh, wretched *day!*—My *country*—where is she now?—His last words were, "My *wife!* my *child!*"—James I. would not allow his subjects to approach him,—a *course* that always gives dissatisfaction.—The reputation of being a *wit* is not worth much.—I had no suspicion of its being *you*.

514. CAUTION.—Every substantive that appears to be used independently is not really so used. The case may depend on a word understood. "Farewell! a pleasant voyage!" Here *voyage* is not in the nominative independent, but in the objective, the object of the verb *wish* understood —*I wish you a pleasant voyage*. So, at the close of a letter, "Your obedient servant, Henry Jones." *Servant* is not nominative independent, but nominative after the verb *am* understood—*I am your obedient servant*.

FALSE SYNTAX.

UNDER § 510. They said they could run faster than me.

[*Corrected.*—They said they could run faster than *I*. *Me* must be changed to *I*, the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *could run* understood.]

Her and me are going to the fair.—The Bermudas' were discovered by Juan Bermudez.—Them that help themselves deserve help.—Few are so industrious as her.—Who interrupted me just now? Me.—Whom do you suppose arrived last night?—Where

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the verb? 513. Recite Rule II., relating to the nominative independent. Give examples. 514. What caution is given? Illustrate this.

are him and you staying?—Edible birds'-nests' are in great favor with the Chinese.—Which of you tore that curtain? Not me, but him.—You certainly can not think that you are happier than us.—Kangaroo's are found only in Australia.—Thee needst not have rebuked me so severely.—Him who honestly earns his bread by the sweat of his brow, all men respect; but him who is too proud to work is esteemed by none.

UNDER § 513. Oh blissful hour, and thrice-blessed us that see it!

[*Corrected.*—Oh blissful hour, and thrice-blessed *we* that see it! *Us* must be changed to *we*, the nominative case, because it is used independently.]

Him that hath eyes to see, let him see.—Thee guiding us, spirit of art, we shall surmount the difficulties of the way.—Us absent, matters will probably be neglected.—Her having died, the estate reverted to her mother.—Ah miserable us! why are we thus forsaken?—Him having been mentioned as a suitable party, would it not be well to offer him the situation?—Them that are athirst, let them all come and drink.

> And her, the sportive, guileless forest maid,
> Where is she now? Ah! ask the flowers that fade.

EXERCISE IN VARIETY OF EXPRESSION.

Vary the form of the following sentences without altering their meaning, by substituting for the dependent clause in each another clause containing a nominative independent and a participle.

As she is a general favorite, there are few that do not miss her.

[VARIED.—*She being a general favorite*, there are few that do not miss her.]

After he had been defeated, the senate once more returned to the city.—As they are in the wrong, I do not feel called on to apologize.—They have no claim to the rents, inasmuch as we are owners of the property.—Since you and I have agreed on terms, I can not see why any one should interfere.—I shall go to see Reuben and Ralph to-morrow, for they are the principal parties interested.—As she and her sisters are acquaintances of mine, I will introduce you with pleasure.—Inasmuch as Maria, you, and I, are the principal heirs, it is proper that we should be present when the will is read.

LESSON LXXI.

SUBSTANTIVES MODIFYING NOUNS.—FALSE SYNTAX.

RULE III.—SUBSTANTIVES MODIFYING NOUNS.

515. A substantive that modifies a noun denoting a different person or thing by implying possession, origin, or fitness, is in the possessive case.

EXAMPLES.—Grace was in all *her* steps.—*Elizabeth's* reign was longer than *Mary's*.—I expect to attend *St. Peter's* [church] to-morrow.—We called at the *Mayor's* [office].—That clock is *mine* [*my* property].—The *governor of New York's* message.

516. When there are several modifying substantives, they are all in the possessive case. If they separately modify different nouns, each has the sign of the possessive. If they jointly modify the same noun, the possessive sign is annexed only to the last. If John, George, and Henry have different fathers, I say "John's, George's, and Henry's father have arrived;" that is, John's father, George's father, and Henry's father. If they are brothers, I say "John, George, and Henry's father has arrived." *John* and *George* are still in the possessive case; but, as all three substantives jointly modify the same noun, *father* expressed, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last only.

517. When a modifying noun has another noun in apposition with it in the possessive case, the sign of the possessive is annexed only to the one nearest the noun modified; as, "Jeremiah the *prophet's* Lamentations." "The prophet *Jeremiah's* Lamentations." "I saw it at *Mosely's* [store], the jeweller that has just opened on Main Street."

518. When a modifying noun is followed by an adjunct or adjective, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the latter and not to the noun; as, "the mayor of *Troy's* visit," "Richard the *Lion-hearted's* career."—*Mayor of Troy's* and *Richard the Lion-hearted's* must here be parsed as complex nouns in the possessive case, for the whole expression is made possessive.

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515. Recite Rule III., relating to substantives modifying nouns. Give examples. 516. When there are several modifying substantives, in what case are they? If they separately modify different nouns, which takes the sign of the possessive? Which, if they jointly modify the same noun? 517. When a modifying noun has another noun in apposition with it, which takes the sign of the possessive case? 518. When a modifying noun is followed by an adjunct or adjective, where does

Such constructions, however, it is best to avoid; say "the visit of the mayor of Troy," "the career of Richard the Lion-hearted."

519. A succession of possessives is inelegant; as, "Our minister's son's partner's brother-in-law's store." Substitute for one or more of the possessives *of* with the objective, or other words denoting the relation implied; as, "The store belonging to the brother-in-law of the partner of our minister's son." It would not do to change each of the possessives to *of* with the objective: "The store of the brother-in-law of the partner of the son of our minister." This repetition would be as inelegant as the former one; variety is essential.

520. The possessive case and *of* with the objective are not always equivalent. Thus, *the Lord's day* is *Sunday;* but *the day of the Lord* is *the day of judgment.* We may speak of *the flower of the field*, but not of *the field's flower.*

521. ARRANGEMENT.—The modifying substantive in the possessive, for the most part, immediately precedes the noun modified.

522. The modifying substantive and the noun modified may be separated by an adjective or adjectives relating to the latter; as, "Nature's richest and most beautiful garb."

They must not be separated by a clause; as, "Our friends', for friends they certainly are, attentions were most agreeable." Alter thus: "The attentions of our friends, for friends they certainly are, were most agreeable."

FALSE SYNTAX.

UNDER § 515. I have just read Josephus history and Isocrates' orations.

[*Corrected.*—I have just read *Josephus's* history and *Isocrates's* orations. *Josephus* must be changed to *Josephus's*, and *Isocrates'* to *Isocrates's*, the possessive case, because they respectively modify the nouns *history* and *orations* by implying origin.—Still better (§119), *the orations of Isocrates.*]

Xerxes expedition signally failed.—Who's history of the Thirty

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the sign of the possessive appear? How must such expressions as *mayor of Troy's* be parsed? How may such expressions be improved? 519. What is said of a succession of possessives? What is said of the repetition of *of* with the objective? How may such inelegancies be corrected? 520. Give examples showing that the possessive case and *of* with the objective are not always equivalent. 521. What is the usual position of the modifying substantive? 522. By what may the modifying substantive and the noun modified be separated? By what must they not be separated?

Years War is the best? Schillers.—Two months notice has been given to those tenants of your's.—There was as much pride in Diogenes' tub as in Platos well-spun garments.—Achilles mother dipped him in Styx' silent stream.—Whosoever's life is upright, peace and happiness shall be his'.—Do you attend St. Thomas' church? No; All Soul's.—The countess' dress was more magnificent than the duchess' or any one else.—For goodness sake, employ your talents for your fellow-creatures benefit.—Here are Perkins Arithmetic, Brooks Ovid, Robbins Xenophon, and Tacitus Life of Agricola.

UNDER § 516. I have bought Andrews' and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, and Worcester and Webster's Dictionary.

[*Corrected.*—I have bought *Andrews* and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, and *Worcester's* and Webster's Dictionary. The possessive sign must be omitted after *Andrews*', because but one grammar is referred to, produced by Andrews and Stoddard jointly. The possessive sign must be annexed to *Worcester*, because two dictionaries are referred to, produced by Worcester and Webster separately.]

A small stream separates my brother and sister farm.—It would be hard to decide which were the greater, Cæsar or Napoleon's victories.—Adam's and Eve's Creator is our Creator.—The Bank of England was established in William's and Mary's reign.—Who was Jacob's and Esau's father?—Who were Saul and David's father?—Whose store is that? It is either Lee's, Jacques' and Company, or Harris'.—France, England, and America's interests are all different.

UNDER § 517. The emperor Augustus' reign.—Augustus the emperors reign.—Peter the Hermits eloquence.—Abernethy's the great physician's practice.—The papers are at my cousin's, the lawyer.—You will find it at Mason, the draper and tailor's on High Street.

UNDER § 518. *First make grammatical; then change to the more elegant form*, of *with the objective:*—Goliah's of Gath spear.—The Queen of the Sandwich Islands proclamation.—The colonel's of the regiment's orders.—The captain of the Erebus daughter.—I wish you would get somebody's else permission.

UNDER § 519, 520. Mary's teacher's brother's child was taken sick to-day.—The house of the sister of the pilot of the Albany

boat was robbed last night.—Rome's and Greece's glory, their heroes' exploits and their authors' genius, are still the brightest ornaments of the historic page.—The press's liberty is one of our chief bulwarks.—The intellect's march is now as rapid as ever.

UNDER § 522. Good Queen Bess's, as she is commonly called, reign, was one of the most glorious in English history.—Such was this impostor's, if we may so characterize him, career.

LESSON LXXII.

OBJECT.—OBJECTIVE OF TIME.—FALSE SYNTAX.

RULE IV.—THE OBJECT.

523. A substantive that is the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case.

EXAMPLES.—Some read *books* simply for *amusement*.—Surveying the *country* on this *side* [of] the *Yarrow*, I found some charming *situations*.—It is past *two* o' *clock* [for *on the clock*].—You are [by] five *dollars* richer than you were.—Do procure [for] *her* a *situation*.—I forbid *you* [to appear in] my *presence*.—He was taught [in] *philosophy* by *Newton*.

524. Do not introduce a preposition to govern the object of a transitive verb. "Consider of my offer." *Consider* is a transitive verb, since it affirms an action exerted on my offer; the preposition *of* should therefore be omitted.

525. Do not make an intransitive verb govern an objective. "He will soon repent him of his crime." The verb *will repent* is intransitive, since it affirms an action not exerted on any person or thing; *him* should therefore be omitted. "Beware the tempter." *Beware* is intransitive; the preposition *of* should therefore be introduced, to govern *tempter*.—"Beware *of* the tempter."

526. A verb may have several objects, connected by a conjunction; as, "Cherish *justice*, *charity*, and *truth*."

527. A verb may be followed by two objectives, one of which is its ob-

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523. Recite Rule IV., relating to the object. Give examples. 524. Point out the error in the sentence *Consider of my offer*. State the rule that applies. 525. Point out the error in the sentence *Beware the tempter*. State the rule that applies. 526. How many objects may a verb have? 527. By what may a verb be

ject and the other in apposition with this object; as, "They call Walter Scott the wizard of the North." *Walter Scott* is in the objective, being the object of the verb *call; wizard* is in the objective, in apposition with *Walter Scott.*

528. A verb is frequently followed by two objectives, the former of which is the object of a preposition understood, while the latter is the object of the verb; as, "We promised [*to*] the best speaker a prize." "Thrice they offered [*to*] Cæsar a crown." "Will you buy [*for*] me a telescope?"

If the objects are transposed, the preposition is inserted; as, "We promised a prize *to* the best speaker." "Thrice they offered a crown *to* Cæsar." "Will you buy a telescope *for* me?"

When such constructions are thrown into the passive form, the object of the verb, and not that of the preposition, must be made the subject; as, "A prize was promised to the best speaker," NOT "The best speaker was promised a prize." "A crown was thrice offered to Cæsar," NOT "Cæsar was thrice offered a crown."

529. A verb in the passive voice can have no object. A substantive in the objective case, following such a verb, is generally governed by some preposition understood; as, "Even this favor was denied [*to*] *him.*" "He was expelled [*from*] the *kingdom.*"

530. Avoid making the same word the object of a verb and preposition, or of two prepositions separated by intervening words. "They not only themselves vigorously *prosecuted*, but called on their allies to aid them *in*, the *war.*" Correct thus: "They not only themselves vigorously prosecuted the war, but called on their allies for aid." "I would have you pay deference to, and place confidence in, the friends that I leave you." Correct thus: "I would have you pay deference to the friends that I leave you, and place confidence in them."

531. ARRANGEMENT.—The object generally stands after the governing word, but sometimes precedes it, particularly in solemn and poetical style.

Examples.—I give you my peace. *Solemn style.* My peace I give unto you.

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followed? 528. When two objectives follow a verb, of what are they sometimes respectively the objects? If the objects are transposed, what change is made in the construction? When such constructions are thrown into the passive form, what must be made the subject of the verb? 529. When an objective follows a verb in the passive voice, by what is it governed? 530. Of what must a word not be made the object? Give a sentence in which this rule is violated, and show how to correct it. 531. What is the position of the object? 532. What class of words

He lives within the city's walls. *Poetical.* He lives the city's walls within.

532. The relatives and interrogatives always precede their governing verb. *That* and *as* always precede the governing preposition; the other relatives and the interrogatives often do so in familiar style. We say, "The man that I met, that I spoke to." "The man whom I met, whom I spoke to, or to whom I spoke." "Whom did I meet?" "Whom did I speak to, or to whom did I speak?"

RULE V.—OBJECTIVE WITHOUT A PREPOSITION.

533. A modifying substantive, denoting time, direction, extent, quantity, or value, often stands in the objective case without a preposition.

EXAMPLES.—I am twenty *years* old, this very day.—Three *times* he rose.—A sick man always wants to go *home*.—She rode a *mile*.—A well fifty *feet* deep.—This wheat will measure fifty *bushels*, and will weigh sixty *pounds* to the bushel.—He charged me a *dollar* for this book.

In the examples just given, no preposition can be supplied to govern the objectives in italics. But in many cases prepositions are used or understood, and then Rule IV. applies. "*On Monday* last he started *for* the *south*." "Our western prairies often extend *for miles*." "A cubic foot of gold would be [*by*] many *pounds* heavier than a cubic foot of coal."

534. *To* is omitted before *home*, *north*, *south*, &c., when not modified by other words, but expressed when they are modified: as, "He went home, north, south;" BUT, "He went to his home, to the north, to the far-distant south."

FALSE SYNTAX.

UNDER § 523. Who should I trust, if not he who I have lived with for years?

[*Corrected.*—*Whom* should I trust, if not *him* *whom* I have lived with for years? *Who* must be changed to *whom*, *he* to *him*, and *who* to *whom*, to be in the objective case; the first *whom*

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always precede their governing verb? What words always precede their governing preposition? What words often do so? 533. Recite Rule V., relating to a modifying substantive denoting time, &c. Give examples, and state what each objective denotes. 534. Give the rule relating to the preposition *to* before *home*, *north*, *south*, &c.

being the object of the verb *should trust*, *him* of *should trust* understood, and the second *whom* of the preposition *with*.]

I love ye.—Let all the world give homage, and they praise that never praised before.—Who did Dr. Jones appoint as his executors?—We will meet you and he this evening.—Let whoever you wish, be present.—I mentioned those that I had seen, and she among the rest.—Between you and I, there is something wrong in that family.—Despite ye all, I will succeed.—We have not had many Nero's in modern times.—Take care who you give that letter to.—What has become of the Washingtons' and Franklin's?—Let the scholar confine himself to his studies, and he that wishes to be safe avoid the vortex of politics.—Notwithstanding the persuasions of my friends and she whom I loved more than they all, I determined to return.

Under § 524. I do not recollect of any parallel case in history.—He will commence with his studies next week.—No person that respects himself can allow of such liberties.—Why will men pursue after pleasure?—Man wants for little here below.—She will not permit of any interference.—We have tried in vain to discover about his plans.

Under § 525. Fare thee well.—Retire thee into the drawing-room.—We should beware us of evil practices.—I fear me there are spies abroad.—Sit thee down and rest thee here.

Under § 528. Washington was offered kingly power.—It seems as if I were grudged even the food I eat.—When a visitor comes in, he should be handed a book.—I was told a very singular story.—He was allowed a pension in consequence of his services.

Under § 530. The nutmeg tree is a native of, and is still largely cultivated in, the Moluccas.—We should not only respect and obey, but try to pay every attention to, our parents.—The natives of Iceland collect great quantities of, and realize quite a profit by exporting, eider-down.

Under § 533. A man of three-score years old.

[*Corrected.*—A man three-score years old. *Of* must be omitted, because *years*, being the objective of time, needs no preposition.]

Dig a pit of six feet deep.—If it rains on to-morrow, I shall want to return to home without delay.—I met a lady of from

twenty to thirty years of age.—For three times the struggle was renewed.—For these I will charge you at a dollar a dozen.

LESSON LXXIII.

SUBSTANTIVES IN APPOSITION.—FALSE SYNTAX.

RULE VI.—SUBSTANTIVES IN APPOSITION.

535. One substantive joined to another denoting the same person or thing, is in the same case.

EXAMPLES.—The fables of *Æsop*, a Phrygian *slave*.—Wolsey, the butcher's *son*, rose to be a cardinal.—Wolsey the *cardinal's* career terminated unfortunately.—Homer wrote two great works, the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*.—I heard it *myself*.—I *Daniel* saw a vision.—Ye *generation* of vipers.—*Father* Matthew has done much for temperance in Ireland.—The *evangelist* John was born in Bethsaida.

The leading substantive generally precedes the other, but not always, as will be seen by the last two examples.

536. Substantives in apposition are frequently introduced by the words *as*, *or*, *that is*, *namely* (*viz.*), *to wit*. "France has always looked upon England as her *enemy* [in apposition with *England*]." "The czar, or *emperor*, of Russia, is now at Moscow." "The Helvetian republic, that is *Switzerland*, has given many proofs of its attachment to liberty." "Three children of Henry VIII. reigned after him; namely [viz., to wit] *Edward* VI., *Mary*, and *Elizabeth*."

537. A substantive repeated for emphasis often stands in apposition with the same word previously used; as, "They are tyrants, unfeeling *tyrants*, *tyrants* from whose tender mercies nothing is to be hoped."

538. A noun may be put in apposition with a clause or member of a sentence; as, "Pocahontas informed the colonists of the intended massacre,—a *favor* that was not soon forgotten." As the clause or member has no case, the case of the noun in apposition is not thus

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535. Recite Rule VI., relating to substantives in apposition. Give examples, and state with what each substantive that illustrates the rule is in apposition. How does the apposition substantive generally stand? 536. By what are substantives in apposition frequently introduced? 537. With what does a substantive repeated for emphasis often stand in apposition? 538. With what, besides a substantive, may a noun be put in apposition? In such constructions, what is the

settled; it may be regarded as in the nominative independent, according to Rule II.

539. A noun in apposition with a plural substantive, or with two or more singular substantives taken together, must be in the plural; as, "We must not make ourselves *gluttons*." "Washington and Adams, the first *presidents*."

540. The pronouns *all*, *these*, *both*, and *such*, are put in apposition with more than one singular substantive taken together; as, "Hun, Goth, and Vandal,—*all* were there." "Scipio and Hannibal were *both* great generals."

541. The singular pronoun *each* is put in apposition with a plural substantive; as, "They looked out *each* for himself."

542. In the expressions *each other* (properly applied to two) and *one another* (to more than two), *each* and *one* are in apposition with some preceding substantive. "Be ye loving to one another:" *one* is in the nominative case, in apposition with *ye; another* is in the objective, after the preposition *to*,—*be ye loving, one to another*.—"Righteousness and Peace have kissed each other:" *each* is in the nominative, in apposition with *Righteousness* and *Peace; other* is the object of *have kissed*.—"I give you to each other:" *each* is in the objective, in apposition with *you; other* is also in the objective after *to*.

543. There is no apposition in the following cases, even though the substantives refer to the same thing:—

1. When one substantive is in the subject and the other in the predicate; as, "Prussia is a kingdom." *Kingdom* is in the nominative after the verb, according to Rule VII.

2. When *of* is introduced, to govern the latter substantive; as, "The kingdom of Prussia."

3. Between the parts of a complex proper noun (which should be taken together in parsing); as, *Cape Horn*, the *Ural River*, *Gilbert Motier de La Fayette*.

4. Between the relative and its antecedent. The relation subsisting between these is pointed out in Rule VIII.

544. When the substantives are in the possessive case, the sign of the

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case of the noun in apposition? 539. When must the apposition noun be put in the plural? 540. With what are the pronouns *all*, *these*, *both*, and *such* put in apposition? 541. With what is *each* put in apposition? 542. In the expressions *each other* and *one another*, how are *each* and *one* used? Parse *one* and *another* in the sentence *Be ye loving one to another*. Parse *each* and *other* in the sentence *Righteousness and Peace have kissed each other*. 543. Specify the four cases in which there is no apposition. 544. When the substantives are in the possessive case, which takes the sign of the possessive?

possessive is used but once, with the one nearest to the noun modified as, "*His* duties as *editor* are very arduous." "Leave it at the *doctor's* [office], my *friend* on Broadway." "Take this prescription to *Hill*, the *apothecary's* [shop]."

FALSE SYNTAX.

UNDER § 535. I love the generous man, he whose great heart
Wide opens to enfold a fellow man.

[*Corrected.*—I love the generous man, *him* whose great heart, &c. *He* must be changed to *him*, to be in the objective case, because it is in apposition with the objective *man*.]

Harvey, him who discovered the circulation of the blood, flourished in the time of King Charles I.—Milton visited Galileo in prison, he who made so many discoveries in Natural Philosophy.—Will you thus requite me, ungrateful men—I who have toiled for you—I who have lost all but life in your defence?—Captain Grant, he that commanded the Vixen, I used to count among my most intimate friends.—He loves you well, all ye that hear my words.—Have you read any of the works of Hannah More, she who was so popular at the commencement of the present century?

LESSON LXXIV.

SUBSTANTIVES AFTER VERBS.—FALSE SYNTAX.

RULE VII.—SUBSTANTIVES AFTER VERBS.

545. A verb that has no object takes the same case after as before it, when both words refer to the same person or thing.

EXAMPLES.—Prussia is a *kingdom* [same case as *Prussia*,—nominative].—I know Prussia to be a *kingdom* [same case as *Prussia*,—objective].—*Who* was Pericles? [*Who* is in the same case as *Pericles*,—nominative.]—It was *she*.—Did you know it to be *her*?

546. Rule VII. refers to intransitive verbs of existence, such as *be*, *be-*

545. Recite Rule VII., relating to substantives used after verbs. Give examples, and point out the substantive before and after the verb in each. 546. What

come, *turn* out; also, to the transitive verbs *call*, *name*, *make*, *appoint*, *consider*, *regard*, and the like, in the passive voice. "*He has been*, *become*, president." "He *has been called*, *made*, *appointed*, *elected*, *chosen*, president."

547. The words *after* and *before*, as used in this rule, refer to the grammatical, and not to the actual, order. In most cases, the two correspond; but the *subject* of the verb is always to be regarded as *before* it, and the *other substantive* as *after* it, no matter what position they may actually occupy. The grammatical order may be reversed; as, "Who art thou?" *Thou* is the subject or nominative before the verb; *who* is in the nominative after it.—Both substantives may precede the verb; as, "I know not *what he* is called."—Both substantives may follow the verb; as, "Are *you* a *Frenchman?*"

548. The substantive before the verb is sometimes omitted; as, "[For a *man*] To become a profound scholar requires long and patient study." *Scholar* is in the objective after *to become*, because *man* understood is in the objective before it.

549. The substantive before the verb may be a clause. As this clause is the subject of the verb, it stands in the relation of the nominative case, and the substantive after the verb is also in the nominative. "*To write well* is a great *accomplishment* [nom.]." "*Why he did it* is a *mystery* [nom.] to me."

550. Rule VII., of course, applies to participles. "By becoming a Quaker, Penn incurred his father's anger." *Penn*, to which the participle *becoming* relates, is in the nominative case before it, and *Quaker* is therefore in the nominative after it.

551. A participle may be used independently. A noun standing after a participle thus used, has no substantive before it with which to agree, and, being used independently, is in the nominative case. "Does not the mind revolt at the thought of being a murderer?" "The crime of being a young man is too atrocious to be forgiven." *Murderer* in the first example, and *man* in the second, having no substantive before the participle *being* with which to agree in case, are in the nominative independent.

552. Exception to Rule VII.—When the substan-

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verbs are referred to in this rule? 547. What is the meaning of the words *after* and *before* in this rule? How does the grammatical order compare with the actual order? Give examples in which they differ. 548. Which substantive is sometimes omitted? 549. What may the substantive before the verb be? In what case, then, is the substantive after the verb? 550. To what, of course, does Rule VII. apply? Give an example. 551. In what case is a substantive after a participle used independently? 552. State the exception to Rule VII. What do

tive before the participle is in the possessive case, the substantive after it is not put in the possessive, but in the nominative; as, "The news of my having turned *soldier* [not *soldier's*] soon reached the village." "His being a *Frenchman* has nothing to do with the matter." *Soldier* and *Frenchman* may here be regarded as in the nominative independent.

Some grammarians teach that the substantive thus used after a participle is in the possessive case, with the sign of the possessive omitted. But, when a pronoun stands in this construction, it is unmistakably in the nominative and not in the possessive; as, "I had no suspicion of its being *they* [not *their*]." It is fair to conclude that a noun in the same construction is in the nominative also.

Others condemn this construction altogether and would substitute an equivalent clause; as, "The news *that I had turned soldier*," &c. "*The fact that he is a Frenchman*," &c. "I had no suspicion *that it was they*." As, however, the construction in question is employed by good writers and often expresses the idea more neatly than any other, there is no reason why it should not be used. The substantive after the participle simply constitutes an exception to Rule VII., and is to be parsed as in the nominative independent.

553. This rule and the remarks under it are further illustrated in the following

PARSING EXERCISE.

No carpet knight was he.—What is a noun?—Be followers of virtue.—To be called a great man is quite different from really being one.—How the western continent became peopled, is still an unsettled question.—Who would incur the imputation of being a malicious slanderer?—Nobody likes the idea of being called a fop.—One critic approves of what is called mere bombast by another.—On account of there being but few present, the lecture was postponed.—Her being an heiress is certainly nothing against her.—Bentley has the reputation of being the best Greek scholar that England ever produced.

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some grammarians teach respecting this construction? What objection is there to this? What do others say of this construction? Is there any good reason for condemning it?

FALSE SYNTAX.

UNDER § 545. Did you suppose it was me?

[*Corrected.*—Did you suppose it was *I*? *Me* must be changed to *I*, to be in the nominative after the verb *was*, *it* being in the nominative before it.]

Did you suppose it to be I?—Did you think that little ill-formed man was me?—If I were you or her, I would put a stop to such proceedings.—You know not whom he may turn out to be.—He is not the person whom he pretended to be, or who you supposed him to be.—It was my brother that you saw, not me.—It makes no difference whom or where you are, always be polite.—Why did you say it was him?—The Missouri and the Mississippi are the longest rivers' of North America.

UNDER § 551. I had no idea of its being him.

[*Corrected.*—I had no idea of its being *he*. *Him* must be changed to *he*, the nominative case, because it is used independently.]

The possibility of their turning soldiers' never occurred to me.—I have no doubt of its being her.—They entertained no suspicion of its being me.—We had no hope of their becoming such scholars'.

LESSON LXXV.

PRONOUNS.—FALSE SYNTAX.

554. The case of a pronoun is determined by the rules already given. These suffice for parsing; but, to avoid errors in speaking and writing, we must look to other things also as well as case.

555. A pronoun takes the person, number, and gender (when it has gender), of the substantive for which it stands.

"Franklin loved *his* country, Victoria loves *her* country, the Swiss love *their* country, we love *our* country." Here the pronoun changes first from

555. What determines the person, number, and gender of a pronoun? Illus-

masculine to feminine [*his* to *her*], then from singular to plural [*her* to *their*], then from third to first person [*their* to *our*], in consequence of similar changes in the substantive for which it stands.

556. EXCEPTION.—Sometimes a pronoun, in stead of agreeing in number with the word for which it stands, agrees rather with the idea conveyed; as, "Israel had pitched *their* tents in the desert." Here *Israel* is singular, but it means the Israelites, and hence the pronoun referring to it is put in the plural.

"I have ten dollars, and shall put *it* in the Savings' Bank to-morrow." If I mean ten single dollars or separate coins, I should say "put *them* in the Savings' Bank;" but otherwise, though *dollars* is plural, one amount is implied, and the pronoun, agreeing with the idea conveyed, stands in the singular.

557. *Many a* is always used with a singular noun, as *many a time*, *many an idle word;* but the idea conveyed is plural. A pronoun standing for a noun preceded by *many a*, in the *same member*, agrees with the noun in the *singular*, but in a *following member* agrees with the idea conveyed and is *plural*. "During this persecution, many a martyr shed *his* blood; and *their* names are still embalmed in the memory of the church."

558. A pronoun referring to a collective noun is put in the singular when the individuals referred to are taken as one whole, but in the plural when they are taken separately; as, "Here the little band lost some of *its* best members." "The whole band eagerly plunged into the river to drink *their* fill."

559. The collective nouns *few*, *many*, *hundred*, *thousand*, &c., preceded by the article *a*, always take a pronoun in the plural; as, "A few lost *their* lives; a great many had *their* limbs broken."

560. A pronoun standing for two or more singular substantives connected by *and* expressed or understood,

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trate this. 556. With what does a pronoun sometimes agree, in stead of the word for which it stands? Give examples. 557. With what number is *many a* always used? In what number is a pronoun that stands for a noun preceded by *many a*? 558. In what number is a pronoun put, that refers to a collective noun? 559. What collective nouns always take a pronoun in the plural? 560. In what number is a pronoun that stands for two or more singular substantives connected by *and*?

must be in the plural; as, "Martha and Mary were weeping for *their* brother Lazarus." "Faith, hope, charity, had left *their* mark on his character."

561. But the pronoun must be put in the singular,

1. When the substantives for which it stands are but different names for the same person or thing; as, "This great physician and surgeon could heal others; *himself he* could not heal."

2. When the substantives are limited by *each*, *every*, or *no*; as, "Every waving tree and every rippling brook has *its* lessons for the thoughtful mind."

562. Singular substantives connected by *and also*, *and too*, *and not*, *but*, *if not*, or *as well as*, are taken separately, and have a pronoun in the singular; as, "Brazil, and India also, is noted for *its* valuable diamonds." "Not only Wellington, but Nelson, greatly distinguished *himself* in this war." "The lord, as well as the beggar, has *his* troubles."

563. A plural pronoun referring to substantives of different persons is put in the first person in preference to the second, and the second in preference to the third; as, "You and he and I will prepare *our* lessons, if nobody else does." "You and he will not disobey *your* mother."

FALSE SYNTAX.

Under § 555. There is such a noise that one can not collect their thoughts.

[*Corrected.*—There is such a noise that one can not collect *his* thoughts. *Their* must be changed to *his*, the singular number, because *one*, the substantive to which it refers, is singular.]

Every-body ought to have regard to the dictates of their own conscience.—No one can tell what trials may await them to-morrow.—A cow gives every token of distress when its calf is taken from it.—Any one can secure the reputation of being a good critic, if they will find fault with every thing and every-body.—Let a

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561. In what two cases must the pronoun be put in the singular? 562. What connectives show that singular substantives are taken separately? In what number must a pronoun be, that refers to singular substantives so connected? 563. What is the rule for the person of a plural pronoun referring to substantives of different persons?

young man be temperate, industrious, and upright, and people will be sure to respect and trust them.—When the buffalo is wounded, they turn furiously on their pursuer, and sometimes trample him to death.—They carved cherubim out of Parian marble, and placed it over the shrine.

I have lost the scissors. Have you seen it?—That duck has lamed his right foot.—Every animal, however small, has some weapon with which they can defend themselves.—The tongs should always be kept in its place.—She saves her wood-ashes, and sells it to a soap-maker.—Thrifty men, when they have received their wages, do not spend it for liquor.—We sent for the regalia, but the manufacturer said that he had not finished it.—As I was looking at the heifer, he suddenly started off and ran down the lane.—Each horseman put their lance in rest.

Under § 557, 558. Many a flower is born to blush unseen, and waste their sweetness on the desert air.—Many a book is published, that is positively injurious ; if it were committed to the flames, it would be a blessing to the community.—No wonder that many a poet has sung the name of Washington and immortalized it in their noblest strains.—The jury separated, to get its dinner.—The court has rendered their decision.—The crew were next called on deck, to receive its orders.

Under § 560. Hard and soft soap differ from each other in the materials that enter into its composition.—Shem, Ham, and Japhet, went into the ark with his father Noah.—My son, my daughter, do not distress yourself.—Adversity, affliction, temptation, ought we not to be ready for it all?—I have tried blue and red ink, but it does not write so well as black.

Under § 561. The druggist and apothecary on the corner will hereafter close their store on Sunday.—My friend and benefactor, do not withdraw yourselves from my embrace.—Your son and heir would do well to alter their ways.—No lord, no king, can enjoy themselves more than I.—Each of the Scipios and each of the Catos had their admirers.

Under § 562. Roger Williams, and Calvert also, showed the liberality of their views by allowing freedom of conscience in religious matters.—It was Cleopatra, and not Semiramis, that killed themselves by the bite of an asp.—Powhatan, as well as Pocahontas, now did all in their power to conciliate the colonists.

UNDER § 563. I told both her and you to see the superintendent and satisfy themselves.—May sister Fanny and I go to her aunt's this afternoon?—I must have met James and you, but I did not recognize either of them.

LESSON LXXVI.

PRONOUNS (CONTINUED).—FALSE SYNTAX.

564. A pronoun standing for two or more singular substantives connected by *or* or *nor*, must be in the singular; as, "Neither Venice nor Genoa retains the proud position *it* once held."

565. But if one of the substantives is plural, it is placed last, and the pronoun is made plural; as, "Neither Venice nor the States of the Church retain the proud position *they* once held."

566. If the substantives are of different persons, the pronoun must be used in the proper person with each; or the sentence must be so altered that the pronoun may be omitted. "Neither James nor I will allow our children to grow up in ignorance" Wrong, because *our* is plural. As there is no pronoun applicable to both *James* (which is *third* person) and *I* (which is *first*), use a separate pronoun for each: "James will not allow *his* children to grow up in ignorance, nor will I *mine*."—"Either my wife or I will come for our children on Tuesday." The meaning here prevents us from correcting as in the last case ("Either my wife will come for her children, or I for mine"), as the children belong to us jointly. We must therefore get rid of the pronoun altogether: "Either my wife or I will come for *the* children on Tuesday."

567. When the substantives are of the third person singular, but of different genders, as the personal pronoun is the same in the plural for both genders, but not in the singular, there is a tendency to use the plural; as, "Neither Alfred nor Ellen were perfect in *their* lessons." "An author or

564. In what number is a pronoun that stands for two or more singular substantives connected by *or* or *nor*? 565. If one of the substantives is plural, what is the rule? 566. If the substantives are of different persons, what is said of the pronoun? Give examples of the two modes of correction suggested. 567. When the substantives are of the third person singular, but of different genders, what tendency is there? What is the rule for the pronoun in this case? What substi-

authoress should not think that the public are bound to receive *them* with favor."

These sentences are wrong. Substantives connected by *or* or *nor* are taken separately and require a singular pronoun. Correct by using the pronoun in the proper gender with each; as, "Neither was Alfred perfect in *his* lessons, nor Ellen in *hers*." Or, when it can be done, use a term of common gender that will embrace both the substantives, and let the pronoun agree with it in the masculine in preference; as, "A *writer* should not think that the public are bound to receive *him* with favor."

568. A noun denoting an inanimate object personified (§ 98) has gender, and a pronoun standing for such a noun must agree with it in gender; as, "Famine, with *his* wan cheeks, gloats over *his* victims." "Plenty trips along, scattering *her* fruits as *she* goes."

569. In a given sentence, pronouns referring to the same substantive must be of the same number and the same form. "*Thou* hast always repaid me with ingratitude, and do *you* now ask a greater favor than ever?" Wrong, because in the second member the pronoun is changed to the plural. Correct thus: "and dost *thou* now ask," &c. "*You* have put your hands to the plough, and will *ye* now draw back?" Wrong, because in the second member the form of the pronoun is changed. Correct thus: "and will *you* now draw back?"

FALSE SYNTAX.

Under § 564. If Seth or Methusaleh grew in wisdom as they grew in years, what knowledge they must finally have attained!

[*Corrected.*—If Seth or Methusaleh grew in wisdom as *he* grew in years, what knowledge *he* must finally have attained! *They* must be changed to *he*, because it stands for the singular substantives *Seth* and *Methusaleh*, connected by *or*.]

Walter Jones or his brother William just passed with their face tied up, as if they had met with an accident.—If you want a good house or farm, I can tell you where to find them.—Neither talent nor wealth should be laid away in a napkin, by those who are fortunate enough to possess them.—We have no evidence in their public acts, that either Charles I. or Charles II. deemed it worth their while to consult the happiness of their subjects.—Neither

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tution is suggested for the substantives? 568. What is said of a pronoun standing for the name of an inanimate object personified? 569. What rule is laid down for pronouns referring to the same substantive in a given sentence? How is this rule violated in the first example? How, in the second?

Plato nor Aristotle thought it proper to make known to the world at large those more important doctrines which they freely taught their followers.—Peace can not be restored till either Austria or Hungary shall surrender their claims.—We should not envy our neighbor health, wealth, or any other blessing, but, on the contrary, should feel glad that he possesses them, even though they be denied to us.

Under § 565. If you want a good house or desirable lots, I can tell you where to find it.—Neither talent nor riches should be laid away in a napkin, by those who are fortunate enough to possess it.—Neither Plato nor the other ancient philosophers thought it proper to make known to the world at large those more important doctrines which he freely taught his followers.—Peace can not be restored till either the Hungarians or Austria shall surrender its claims.

Under § 566. Neither you nor any honorable man ought to be ashamed to ask the forgiveness of your friend, when you have wronged him.—Thou or I must abandon his claims.—Neither he nor you promised your wives to return before to-morrow.—Here is an opportunity for you or me to distinguish ourselves [*to gain distinction*].—Neither he nor you should promise yourselves success in such a cause.

Under § 567. A true-hearted man or woman will never insult their inferiors.—Neither the king nor the queen seems to concern themselves much about the welfare of their subjects.—No boy or girl should disobey their parents.—Every gentleman and lady should remember that they are responsible for the example they set to the world.—If you see my brother or sister, tell them I will not be home to-night.

Under § 568. Spring trips along, scattering its blossoms as it goes.—The Earth is ever a bounteous mother to its children.—Time mows down rich and poor alike with its relentless scythe.—Hope breathes many a delightful promise into the ears of its votaries.—How many are wooed to destruction by Pleasure with its syren songs!—There is no orator so persuasive as Fashion; it has but to open its lips, and nobody thinks of gainsaying its words.

Under § 569. Fame you know to be a dream; wilt thou then barter thy soul for it?—Let falsehood be a stranger to your lips, a stranger to thy heart.—Listen ye men of Rome, you who proudly

call Romulus your father.—Fools may your scorn, but not thy envy raise.

LESSON LXXVII.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.—FALSE SYNTAX.

RULE VIII.—Relatives.

570. A relative agrees with its antecedent in person and number.

A relative does not agree with its antecedent in *case*. This depends on its relation to some word or words in its own clause. Several of the remarks in the last two lessons apply to relatives, as will be seen in the following

Examples of Rule VIII.—I *who* [1st, singular, agreeing with *I*] speak. —Thou *who* [2nd. sing.] speakest.—He *who* [3rd, sing.] speaks.—We *who* [1st, plural] speak.—You *who* [2nd, plu.] speak.—They *who* [3rd, plu.] speak.—Many a man *that* [3rd, sing.] passes for a hero is really a coward. —Beaumont and Fletcher, *who* [plural, agreeing with two singular antecedents connected by *and*] are always named together, wrote some fine lyrics. —This great physician and surgeon, *who* [sing., as but one person is denoted by *physician* and *surgeon*] could heal others, could not heal himself. —Every tree and plant *that* [sing., agreeing with antecedents preceded by *every*] blossoms, testifies to the goodness of our Creator.—You and he and I, *who* [1st person preferred] know our lessons, will not be kept in.

571. When there are two or more substantives, either of which, as far as the sense is concerned, may be the antecedent, the relative agrees with the nearest; as, "I am the party *that* [3rd, sing., agreeing with *party*, not *I*] is to blame." "It is I *that* [1st, sing., agreeing with *I*, not *it*] am to blame."

572. If the antecedent is a clause, the relative is in the third person, singular; if two or more clauses, in the third, plural. "He is witty, *which*

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570. Recite Rule VIII., referring to relatives. On what does the case of a relative depend? Give examples of the rule, and name the antecedent in each case. 571. When there are two or more substantives, either of which, as far as the sense is concerned, may be the antecedent, with which does the relative agree? 572. In what person and number is the relative, if the antecedent is a clause? If

[3rd, sing.] I regard as no great advantage." "Whether the classics discipline the mind, and whether an acquaintance with them is of any practical benefit in life, *which* [3rd, plural] are both important questions, every scholar must decide for himself."

573. The relative connects its clause with the leading part of the sentence. A conjunction, therefore, should not be used before a relative, unless there are two or more relative clauses to be connected. "Dr. Johnson, the author of the Dictionary, who [not *and who*] wrote the 'Lives of the Poets,' flourished in the reign of George II. and George III." But, if there are two relative clauses, *and* may be used; as, "Dr. Johnson, who wrote the Dictionary *and* whose 'Lives of the Poets' has been much admired, ranks high as a critic."

574. A sentence must not commence with a relative referring to an antecedent in a previous sentence. Use *this* or *these* instead. "*This* [not *which*] having been done, we again set sail."

575. WHO, WHICH, THAT.— *Who*, as already stated, relates to persons, or animals and things personified; *which*, to animals and things only.

576. *That* is equally applicable to persons, animals, and things. It must be used in stead of *who* or *which*,

1. When both persons and things are referred to; as, "Look at the *artists* and *master-pieces that* ancient Greece produced." Here neither *who* nor *which* would be applicable to both the antecedents.

2. When *who* is the antecedent, to prevent repetition; as, "*Who that* hateth his brother can love God?"

3. After a superlative; as, "Hannibal was the *deadliest* enemy *that* Rome ever had."

577. *That* is also generally preferred to *who* or *which*, 1. After *same*, *all*, and the adjectives *very* and *no;* as, "Washington was the *very* man

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the antecedent consists of two or more clauses? 573. When only may a conjunction be used before a relative? Why is this? 574. With what must a sentence not commence? 575. To what does *who* relate? *Which? That?* 576. What antecedents require the use of *that* in stead of *who* or *which*? After what degree must *that* be used? 577. In what three cases is *that* generally preferred to *who* or

that the colonies needed." 2. When the antecedent follows *it is, it was*, &c.; as, "*It was I that* knocked." 3. When the antecedent is a collective noun; as, "The *committee that* was appointed immediately opened a subscription."

578. *That* implies a closer connection with the antecedent than *who* or *which*. It is therefore generally used when the relative clause restricts and is essential to the meaning to be conveyed. But it must not be used when the relative clause merely states some additional fact, and can be left out without injury to the sense. Thus:—"A man *that* [restrictive] possessed great eloquence could lead the Athenians at his will." "Pericles, *who* [not *that*, because additive] possessed great eloquence, could lead the Athenians at his will."

579. When the relative refers to the antecedent simply as a name or character, *which* must be used, not *who* or *that;* as, "Such were the trials of Job, *which* has come to be regarded as another name for patience." "Solomon appears to the greatest advantage as a judge, *which* he was even to the meanest of his subjects."

580. POSITION.—The relative, with its clause, should stand immediately after its antecedent; as, "*Those who* break the law deserve punishment," NOT "*Those* deserve punishment *who* break the law."

FALSE SYNTAX.

UNDER § 573, 574. The elephant, the largest of quadrupeds, and which sometimes attains the height of fifteen feet, can easily draw a load that six horses can not move.—The whig candidate for the presidency was Taylor, the hero of Buena Vista, and who was elected by a small majority. Who dying before his term of office expired, Fillmore became president.—In February, 1848, a mechanic, digging a mill-race for Captain Sutter, a Swiss, and who had settled in the valley of the Sacramento, discovered among the sand some particles of gold. Which news having spread, thousands at once flocked to California from the Atlantic states.

UNDER § 576. There were not cars enough to transport the passengers and baggage which had arrived at this point.—The

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which? 578. Which relative implies the closest connection with the antecedent? When, therefore, is *that* generally used? When must it not be used? 579. When must *which* be used, and not *who* or *that*? 580. What is the proper position for the relative and its clause?

most valuable article which is produced by insects, is silk.—Who, I ask, who looks upon the heavens studded with stars, can doubt that there is a God?—Boas are the largest serpents which are known.—I could not help admiring the good-natured country-people and the baskets of splendid fruit, with which the market was filled.

UNDER § 577. I am the same man which I was; it is you who have altered.—There is no man who sinneth not.—He who does all which he can, should be commended, though it be but little.—Nations which do not foster education can not hope to prosper.—Birds which live on animal food are called carnivorous.—Birds of paradise, that are much prized for their beautiful plumage, are found chiefly in New Guinea.—The family whom I visited, can not be the same which you refer to.

UNDER § 580. He is a common-place man, that has no friends and no enemies.—A man should first count the cost, who is about to build a house.—Alfred freed England from the Danes, who showed as much courage in war as wisdom in peace.—Even those philosophers fell far short of modern enlightenment, who advanced furthest in the search for wisdom in ancient times.—Those evil-disposed persons should be driven from society, who take pleasure in slandering their neighbors.—On this voyage, the captain treated the sailors very harshly, who had never been known to do so before.

LESSON LXXVIII.

PRONOUNS (CONTINUED).—FALSE SYNTAX.

581. When two or more relative clauses referring to the same antecedent are connected by a conjunction, the same relative must be used; as, "No man *that* loves his family, or *that* [not *who*] regards his own happiness, will give way to intemperance."

But, when one of the clauses is restrictive and the other not, *that* is

581. What rule is laid down respecting two or more relative clauses referring to the same antecedent? When one of the clauses is restrictive and the other

used in the restrictive clause, which is placed first, and *who* or *which* without a conjunction in the other; as, "The part *that* was left, *which* was more valuable in appearance than in reality, was given to Adherbal."

582. Do not use the adverb *where* for *in which*, or *whence* for *from which*, unless place is referred to literally.

We say, "Travellers are in doubt as to the spot *where* Palmyra once stood." "The harbor *whence* we sailed was gay with flags." But, "They presented a document *in which* [not *where*] their grievances were set forth." "The premises *from which* [not *whence*] they drew these conclusions, were false."

583. Do not omit a preposition and relative, connecting parts of a sentence; as, "The winter the Pilgrims landed, was remarkable for its severity." Supply *in which* after *winter*.

584. Do not make a pronoun stand for an adjective or a finite verb.

This rule is violated in the following sentences:—"Never be ungrateful, for *this* is one of the most heartless of sins." "He declared that he would not retreat, *which* would be equivalent to giving up the cause as lost." Correct thus:—"Never be ungrateful, for *ingratitude* is one of the most heartless of sins." "He declared that he would not retreat, for that *to do so* would be equivalent to giving up the cause as lost."

585. Do not use the pronoun *them* for the adjective *those*, or the pronoun *what* for the conjunction *that*. "I will never believe but *what* [*that*] you might have saved *them* [*those*] trees."

586. Pronouns must be so used that there may be no doubt for what they stand. Do not, therefore, make

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not, what is the rule? 582. When only may *where* be used for *in which*, and *whence* for *from which*? 583. What must not be omitted? 584. For what must a pronoun not be made to stand? Give examples of the violation of this rule, and the modes of correction. 585. For what must *them* and *what* not be used? 586. What is essential in the use of pronouns? What rule is laid down respecting personal pronouns? Give examples of the violation of this rule, and show how

the same personal pronoun represent different persons or things in the same sentence.

Errors of this kind are frequent, and may be corrected in different ways. "The farmer told the lawyer that *his* ox had gored *his* horse." Say '*Your ox has gored my horse*,' or '*My ox has gored your horse*,' as the case may be. "Pope wrote to Addison that *he* was aware of *his* secret efforts to injure *his* reputation." Say *of the secret efforts of the latter*, &c. "A man does not always appreciate *his* friend's kindness, when *he* sacrifices *his* comfort to promote *his* happiness." Say *his friends' kindness, when they sacrifice their comfort to promote his happiness.*

"We were struck with the grandeur of the scenery in the neighborhood of this cascade, and could not help admiring *it*." Admiring what? The grandeur, the scenery, or the cascade? The sentence must be altered so as to determine which is meant. "We could not help admiring the striking grandeur of the scenery in the neighborhood of this cascade." Or, "Struck with its grandeur, we could not help admiring the scenery in the neighborhood of this cascade." Or, "We could not help admiring this cascade, which was surrounded by scenery of striking grandeur."

587. A pronoun should not be used with its substantive, in a relation which the substantive may itself properly sustain.

"Regulus having reached Rome, *he* urged the senate not to accept the terms proposed by Carthage." Omit *he*, and thus make *Regulus* the subject. "Whatever we desire, we are very apt to hope *it*." Omit *it*. "*It* is hard indeed, the lot of the poor when they are attacked by sickness." Say, "Hard indeed is the lot of the poor, when," &c.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Under § 581. A ruler that administers the laws with justice and who consults the happiness of his subjects, will always be respected.

[*Corrected.*—A ruler that administers the laws with justice and *that* consults the happiness of his subjects, will always be respected. *Who* must be changed to *that*, because *that* is used in the previous

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it may be corrected. Show what is wrong in the sentence *We were struck with the grandeur of the scenery in the neighborhood of this cascade, and could not help admiring it.* Alter the sentence in three ways, so as to determine its meaning 587. State the rule relating to a pronoun and its substantive.

relative clause with reference to the same antecedent, the two clauses being connected by a conjunction.]

Such travellers as have penetrated into the interior of Africa and who have given us an account of their explorations, represent it as abounding in game.—What surprises me most, and which may well surprise every-body, is that men will so far lose sight of their own interests as to fall into intemperance.—Persons that have been blind from their birth, but who have opportunities for instruction, can be taught to read with facility.—The cotton that is raised on these islands, and which always commands a better price than the ordinary qualities, is one of the staples of the state.

Under § 582, 583. Can you remember the book where you saw the passage?—There are characters where there seems to be no redeeming feature.—It is useless to speak of the authors whence Milton drew his inspiration.—Gibbon sometimes utters sentiments whence we can derive no good.—He has produced a volume well calculated to interest the class it is intended.—What else could Burgoyne do in the circumstances he was placed?

Under § 584. When there are too many laws, they are constantly violated; which always has a bad effect on the community.—We love to see a man modest, which is generally a sign of merit.—After an illness of a few days, Washington died; which was the cause of great sorrow to the country at large.—Hannibal wintered at Capua, which proved the ruin of his army.

Under § 585. Jackson had no fears but what he would prevent the further advance of the British.—We have bought some of them French roses.—Do you like them fuchsias as well as ours?—I have no apprehensions but what he will be in time.

Under § 586. Helen sent Mary a pot of jelly, which she said she had made for her husband.—No man should allow another to commit a crime, if he can prevent him.—Why did not the friends of Hamilton and Burr do their best to prevent the duel between them?—The simplicity of the style maintained throughout this book, has always led me to admire it.

Under § 587. William and Mary, they have no love for study.—It is singular the labor that men will undergo to avoid labor.—

Kossuth having taken refuge in Turkey, he was now for a time safe.—It is not always right, what a man thinks to be right.—There is no politician, whom, however high he may stand in the eyes of the world, we shall not find him selfish and unscrupulous.

LESSON LXXIX.

ARTICLES.—FALSE SYNTAX.

RULE VIII.—Articles.

588. An article relates to the word whose meaning it limits.

Examples.—*A tie the holiest* that can bind men together.—*The less* we talk, *the* less *trouble* we are likely to fall into.—*The* prodigal [*persons*] often come to want.—Charles *the* Bald [*king*].—If all *the planets* are inhabited, what *a* countless *throng* of living beings must pass before *the Creator's* eye!

589. The articles must not be interchanged. "He does not look like the man of talent." Change *the* to *a*, because no particular man of talent is referred to.

590. *An* or *a* must not be used with a plural noun. "He borrowed *a tongs* from a hut *a* long *ways* off." Correct thus:—"He borrowed *a pair* of tongs from a hut *a* great *distance* off."

591. No article must be joined to nouns used in their widest sense, or to the names of qualities, passions, states of being, &c., taken generally, and not as belonging to a particular object.

We say, "Lead us not into temptation [not *the temptation*]; deliver us from evil [not *the evil*]." But we speak of "*the* temptations of the

588. Recite Rule VIII., relating to articles. Give examples, and in each tell to what the article relates. 589. In the sentence *He does not look like the man of talent*, what change should be made, and why? 590. With what must *an* or *a* not be used? 591. To what nouns must an article not be joined? When must the article be prefixed to the names of qualities, passions, states of feeling, &c.?

world," "*the* evil of sin." So, "Patience is a virtue;" but "*the* patience of Job." When we limit the meaning of the noun to a particular object with the preposition *of*, we must introduce the article.

592. No article must be joined to the names of the arts and sciences, or words used merely as titles; as, "Columbus was well versed in geography and mathematics [not *the geography and the mathematics*]." "The supreme executive officer in Russia is called Czar [not *a Czar*]."

593. When two or more nouns come together in the same construction, the article need not be repeated unless they are contrasted; as, "The energy and ambition of Napoleon were equalled only by his selfishness." But, "We admire the energy, but not *the* ambition, of Napoleon." The article is here repeated, because the nouns are contrasted.

594. If one of the nouns does not admit an article before it, place it first; as, "Mathematics and the classics should both be studied as a mental discipline,"—not *the classics and mathematics*, for then the article would appear to limit the meaning of *mathematics* also.

595. In making a comparison, if we refer to one person or thing viewed in different characters or capacities, we must use the article but once; if we refer to two persons or things, we use it twice.

"Shakspeare was a greater poet than actor." Here we refer to but one person, and say that he was greater as a poet than as an actor. If we repeat the article—"Shakspeare was a greater poet than *an* actor"—we mean *than an actor was*, and refer to two different parties.

596. So, when a noun is preceded by two or more adjectives connected by a conjunction, if but one person or thing is referred to, place the article before the first adjective only; but, if more than one, use the article with each adjective. If we mean one spot, partly black and partly blue, we say "a black and blue spot"; but, if we refer to two spots, one all black and the other all blue, we say "a black and *a* blue spot".

597. *Few* means *not many; little* means *not much*. By putting the article *a* before them, we make their meaning positive; *a few*, *a little*, mean *some*. It is better to have *a few* virtues than *few* virtues, and *a little*

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592. To what else must an article not be joined? 593. When two or more nouns come together in the same construction, when may we use the article but once, and when must we repeat it? 594. What must be done, if one of the nouns does not admit an article before it? 595. In making a comparison, when must we use the article but once, and when must we repeat it? 596. When a noun is preceded by two or more adjectives connected by a conjunction, when must the article be used before the first adjective only, and when before each? 597. What does *few*

money than *little* money. A person may be commended for having *few* vices, but not for having *a few*.

598. ARRANGEMENT.—The article generally precedes its noun, but sometimes follows it; as, *the* fourth *chapter*, *chapter the* fourth.

599. When both an article and an adjective are joined to a noun, the usual order is *article*, *adjective*, *noun;* rarely, as in the last example, *noun*, *article*, *adjective*.

600. The adjective stands before the article and noun, when the expressions *all the*, *both the*, *many a*, *such a*, *what a*, are used; as, *both the hemispheres*.

601. When the adjective is modified by *as*, *how*, *so*, or *too*, the article stands immediately before the noun, and the adjective with its modifier either precedes both or follows both; as, *too terrible a doom*, or *a doom too terrible*. When the adjective is modified by any other adverb, the order is either *article*, *adjective*, *noun*, or better *article*, *noun*, *adjective*. We say *a dazzlingly bright eye*, or better *an eye dazzlingly bright*.

602. When the adjective is modified by several words, the article precedes the noun, and the adjective with its modifying words follows it; as, *a character lovely in every point of view*.

FALSE SYNTAX.

UNDER § 589. A diphthong is the combination of two vowels in one syllable.

[*Corrected.*—A diphthong is *a* combination of two vowels in one syllable. *The* must be changed to *a*, because *a* diphthong, one of the kind but no particular one, is defined.]

By the variation of the compass is meant a deviation in the direction of the needle from due north.—Few flowers are so beautiful as a dahlia.—An eagle is the emblem of America.—A whale is the largest of fish.—Critics are not agreed as to what animal Job means, when he speaks of a leviathan.—She is entitled to the third of her husband's property.

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mean? What does *little* mean? What is the effect of putting *a* before *few* and *little*? Illustrate this. 598. What is the usual position of the article? 599. When both an article and an adjective are joined to a noun, what is the usual order? 600. In what expressions does the adjective precede the article and noun? 601. What is the order, when the adjective is modified by *as*, *how*, *so*, or *too*? What is the order when the adjective is modified by any other adverb? 602. When the adjective is modified by several words, what is the order?

UNDER § 590. I have just ordered a splendid regalia.—About this time, people were alarmed by a singular phenomena in the sky.—The crime was committed in a thick woods.—I can not cut with such a dull scissors.—When you go to market, buy me a hen and chickens.

UNDER § 591, 592. The apteryx is a curious kind of a bird without the wings.—*Which* must not be used when a reference is made to persons.—The law is just, but it operates hard in the particular cases.—Neither the famine nor the pestilence destroys as many as the sword.—Cæsar was now again saluted as the dictator.

UNDER § 593, 594. Europeans can stand the heat, but not malaria, of Africa.—It is the justice, as much as wisdom, of a magistrate, that we admire.—The law and politics engaged his attention by turns.—The dahlia, as well as fuchsia, is a native of America.

UNDER § 595. A mastiff makes a better watch-dog than spaniel.—Many a boy that is sent to college would make a better blacksmith than a scholar.—A German acquires the English language more easily than Italian.—Michael Angelo was as great a painter as a sculptor.

UNDER § 596. Farmer Ball has a black and white cow, and lets them both run on the road.—A black and a white cow was run over by the locomotive last Tuesday.—The past and present condition of Greece present quite a contrast.—The upper and lower cities have a very different appearance.—There is a black and a blue spot where I struck my arm.

UNDER § 597. I am happy to say that he has little sense of shame left.—We can point with honest pride to few American sculptors.—They have run through their property, and now have a little left.

LESSON LXXX.

ADJECTIVES.—FALSE SYNTAX

RULE X.—ADJECTIVES.

603. An adjective relates to the substantive whose meaning it qualifies or limits.

603. Recite Rule X., relating to adjectives. Give examples, and in each tell

EXAMPLES.—*Truth* is *eternal.*—*We* are *all mortal.*—*To retreat* is *impossible.*—*That the best printing-presses are made in the United States* is *certain.*—The *ungrateful* [*persons*] are *inexcusable.*—To be [a] *virtuous* [*man*] is to be [a] *happy* [*man*].

604. Use *this* and *that* with singular nouns only, *these* and *those* only with plurals. Say *this sort of men*, not *these sort*, because *sort* is singular; *these tidings*, not *this tidings*, because *tidings* is plural.

605. *This here* and *these 'ere*, *that there* and *those 'ere*, are gross errors. Correct by omitting the adverbs—*this boy*, not *this here boy.*

606. *Few* means *not many*; *little* means *not much. Few*, *fewer*, *fewest*, are therefore used with reference to things numbered; *little*, *less*, *least*, with reference to quantities. "There can not be *fewer* than a hundred persons present." "It can not weigh *less* than a hundred pounds."

607. *Whole* implies entireness of parts. To imply entireness of number, we must use *all.* We say *the whole population*, but *all the inhabitants. Whole* villages may be destroyed in a country, yet some may escape; if *all* the villages are destroyed, none escape.

608. Adjectives, though they have the form of participles or are derived from them, can not govern the objective case. If an objective follows them, it depends on a preposition, and this preposition should generally be expressed. Say *conduct unbecoming to a gentleman*, not *unbecoming a gentleman.*

609. ARRANGEMENT.—When several adjectives are joined to a noun, if all refer to it alike, they are generally arranged according to their length, the shortest first, and connected by a conjunction; as, "a graceful, beautiful, and intelligent girl".

But sometimes an adjective forms with a noun one complex idea that can be modified by another adjective, and this again by another. In such cases, the adjectives are not connected by a conjunction, and

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to what the adjective relates. 604 With what must *this* and *that* be used? With what, *these* and *those*? 605. What expressions are pronounced gross errors? How are they to be corrected? 606. To what are *few*, *fewer*, *fewest* applied, and to what *little*, *less*, *least*? 607. What is the difference of meaning between *whole* and *all*? Illustrate this. 608. Is an adjective capable of governing? What should be expressed after an adjective, to govern the objective case? 609. When several adjectives refer alike to a noun, in what order are they generally arranged? In what case must the adjectives not be connected by a conjunction? How must they then be arranged? In what order do they generally stand, as regards their meaning?

must be so arranged that each may properly modify the complex idea conveyed by the adjectives and noun which follow.

Adjectives denoting material generally stand nearest the noun, then those denoting color, then age, then ordinary qualities: as, "a handsome, new, white wooden cottage;" "a well-formed, spirited, young iron-grey horse;" "a gloomy, dilapidated old building".

FALSE SYNTAX.

Under § 604. Napoleon was rapid in his movements, and by these means surprised his enemies.

[*Corrected.*—Napoleon was rapid in his movements, and by *this* means surprised his enemies. *These* must be changed to *this*, because, but one means being spoken of, *means* is singular.]

Put that ashes in the barrel.—I can not help thinking of those bad news you brought.—After you have bought a gallon of those good molasses, take this spectacles to the silver-smith's, to get them mended.—For this last ten days, she has suffered from neuralgia.—Old houses are infested with rats and mice, and this vermin sometimes do great damage to the walls.—None of those kind of persons will be admitted.

Under § 605. I do not like these 'ere coarse-pointed pens.—Set out those 'ere onions in this here bed.—What has become of that there friend of yours?

Under § 606, 607. I have little fears on that subject.—She dislikes visitors; the less she has, the better it suits her.—In this retired spot, you have the least possible interruptions.—No less than forty-seven scholars were engaged on our standard translation of the Bible.—If less than twenty members are present, no business can be done.—The whole waters around Newfoundland teem with fish.—All the families in New York were attacked by the cholera; very few escaped altogether.—The whole details are harrowing in the extreme.

Under § 608. Be sparing flattery, when you are in the company of sensible people.—Some persons are so vile as to be utterly undeserving notice.—We expect from you such deportment as is becoming your position in life.—Parties most deserving the aid of the charitable are frequently overlooked.

UNDER § 609. An industrious, obliging, faithful, and smart servant, is a rarity.—I found her an intelligent and young lady.—The company have just erected a brick fine four-story building.—Here is a white fragrant rose.—We saw a number of rusty singular copper old coins.—They have presented their minister a new black handsome cloth coat.

LESSON LXXXI.

ADJECTIVES (CONTINUED).—FALSE SYNTAX.

610. Adjectives whose meaning precludes the idea of comparison must not be compared. Nor must they be used with *more*, *most*, *less*, *least*, *so*, or any other adverb implying difference of degrees in the quality denoted.

An adjective already in the comparative or superlative degree must not be made the basis of a new comparison.

Do not say, the *chiefest* beauty, a *truer* statement, *so faultless* a character, the *fartherest* house, a *more nearer* view, the *least wisest* course. Correct by omitting the termination or adverb that implies comparison; or by substituting an adjective that may properly be compared. Thus: the *chief* beauty, a *more correct* statement, a character *so nearly faultless*, the *farthest* house, a *nearer* view, the *least wise* course.

611. In comparing two objects, use the comparative degree; in comparing more than two at once, the superlative: as, "the *elder* of the two brothers," "the *eldest* of the family". "Asia is *larger* than Europe." "Asia is the *largest* of the grand divisions of the earth."

The comparative degree is used when an object is compared with any

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610. What adjectives must not be compared? With what words, also, must such adjectives not be used? What rule is laid down with respect to adjectives already in the comparative or superlative? According to these rules, what are we forbidden to say? How must we correct such expressions? 611. In comparing objects, when must the comparative degree be used, and when the superlative?

number of others, provided they are taken separately; as, "Asia is *larger* than Europe, Africa, or North America." "Asia is *larger* than any other grand division."

612. After the comparative degree, use *other* with the latter of the terms compared, if it includes the former, and *only then*.

"The Amazon is longer than any river." The Amazon being a river, the latter of the terms compared, *river*, includes the former, *Amazon;* and we assert that the Amazon is longer than itself. Correct by introducing the word *other*, to exclude the former term: "The Amazon is longer than any *other* river."

"The Amazon is longer than any other river of Europe." Here the Amazon is not compared with rivers in general, but with the rivers of Europe. As it is not itself a river of Europe, the latter term compared does not include the former, and *other* must be omitted.

613. After the superlative degree, neither *other* nor *any* must be used with the latter of the terms compared; this latter term must include the former.

"The Amazon is the longest of all other rivers." "The Amazon is the longest of any river in the world." Both these sentences are wrong, because the latter term compared does not include the former. Say, "The Amazon is the longest of rivers;" or, *of all rivers.*

"Augustus was the greatest of all his successors." Wrong, because Augustus was not one of his own successors; the latter term does not include the former. Correct by substituting a term that does include the former: "Augustus was the greatest of all *the Roman emperors.*" Or else substitute the comparative degree: "Augustus was *greater* than any of his successors."

614. An adjective in the comparative or superlative must precede an adjective modified by *more* or *most*, relating to the same noun; as, "a larger and more interesting volume".

In what case may the comparative degree be used, even when an object is compared with any number of others? 612. How and when must *other* be used after the comparative degree? Show by examples when *other* must be used, and when not. 613. After the superlative degree, what words must not be used with the latter term? Why not? Illustrate this principle. 614. What is the proper order, when a comparative or superlative and an adjective modified by *more* or

We do not say "a more interesting and larger volume," 1. Because it would sound ill. 2. Because it might appear that *more* belonged to the second adjective *larger*, as well as to *interesting*.

615. Adjectives must not be used for adverbs, nor adverbs for adjectives. See § 403, 404.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Under § 610. Nothing is more preferable than a good character.

[*Corrected.*—Nothing is preferable *to* a good character. *More* must be omitted, because the meaning of *preferable* precludes the idea of comparison. *Than* must be changed to *to*, because *preferable* is followed by *to*.]

The people were clamorous for a freer constitution.—Few institutions give so complete a course and so perfect an education as the German Universities.—Turkey is as dead as any country can well be.—The raisins of Malaga are more superior than those of Smyrna.—The English regarded Wellington with the most entire confidence.—Mohammedan pilgrims look upon Mecca as the most holiest spot on earth.—Did you not promise to take her for better or worser?—The Pacific is the least roughest of all the oceans.—How much more are we better off than ever before!

Under § 611. Which of those twins is the largest?—The elder of your three brothers is the smaller.—Is the present or the past condition of France the best?—Which is the most northerly, New York or San Francisco?—Which is the more northerly, New York, Philadelphia, or San Francisco? The former, I think.—At Panama, the year is divided into a wet and a dry season; the last is the shortest.—We have a department for boys and one for girls; the former are the smartest in arithmetic, but the latter are the best in composition.

Under § 612. The plague was more fatal than any disease then known.—Mary is shorter than any other of her sisters.—Jeremiah is more pathetic than any of the prophets.—Day and

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most relate to the same noun? Why should we not say *a more interesting and larger volume*? 615. What is the last rule relating to adjectives?

night are longer in the polar regions than in other lower latitudes. —Iridium and platinum are heavier than any of the metals.

UNDER § 613. Lake Superior is the largest of any lake in the world.—Washington was the last of his soldiers to leave the field. —Mount Mitchell is the loftiest of any other elevation of land east of the Rocky Mountains.—Adam is supposed to have been the most noble looking of his descendants.—The moon is the nearest to us of all the stars.

UNDER § 614. There are few more fertile or fairer lands than Italy.—Domitian was one of the most tyrannical, most depraved, and weakest, of the Roman emperors.—The reign of George III. was at the same time the most eventful and longest recorded in English history.

UNDER § 615. Opportunities of gaining distinction do not now occur so frequent as they did in old times.—The sun looks less brightly than usual to-day.—There are few that live as holy as they ought.—His finger pains him very bad.—It makes one feel strangely to be alone in a foreign land.—Water is frozen easier than alcohol.—James reads more distinct than any of my scholars.

LESSON LXXXII.

FINITE VERBS.—FALSE SYNTAX.

RULE XI.—AGREEMENT OF THE VERB.

616. A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

EXAMPLES.—*I dare* [1st, sing., agreeing with *I*] not go.—*He dares* not go.—If *thou hadst obeyed* orders, all would have been well.—*Thou is* [3d, sing., agreeing with *thou* taken merely as a word] in the singular number.—*Each* of them *is* to be examined.—There *needs* great *labor* to produce a good crop.—There *lacked* but one [*article*] of the whole number.—*Is it* thou?—Who *art thou?*—*Go* [*thou*] *meet* [*thou*] thy brother.—*To die is* [3d, sing., agreeing with the infinitive *to die*] gain.—From what

616. Recite Rule XI., relating to the agreement of the verb. In each of the examples, give the person and number of the verb, and tell with what it agrees.

country the nectarine was introduced, *is* [3rd, sing., agreeing with the substantive clause that precedes] uncertain.

617. CAUTIONS.—Be sure that the verb agrees with the right word. When it is separated from its subject by an intervening substantive, there is a tendency to make it agree with the latter.

"A succession of excitements are sure to distract the mind from study." Wrong, because *succession* is the subject, and not *excitements*, which is the object of the preposition *of*. The verb *are* must be made singular,—*is*. So, "Your *vessel*, together with twelve others, *has* [not *have*] arrived." "This *confusion* of ideas in educated minds *is* [not *are*] to be deplored."

618. Be sure that the verb is in the right person and number, when its subject is a relative pronoun; remembering that a relative takes the person and number of its antecedent.

"A belief in astrology was one of the most wide-spread delusions that has ever led men astray." The subject *that* agrees with its antecedent *delusions* in the third person, plural; the verb should therefore be plural,—*have led*. "I am the person that *is* [not *am*] responsible for the statement." Here *person* is the antecedent, not *I;* and the relative is in the third, singular.

619. The title of a book, being looked upon as one thing, takes a verb in the singular, even though its leading substantive is plural; as, "Howitt's 'Homes of the Poets' *is* [not *are*] a delightful volume."

620. A verb between two nominatives agrees with the one that is the leading subject of discourse. This, except in questions asked with an interrogative pronoun, is almost always the one that precedes it; as, "*Godliness is* great riches."

If the nominatives are equally prominent as subjects of discourse, the verb may agree with the one that follows it, particularly if it is nearer than the other; as, "The wages of sin *is* death." *Are*, agreeing with *wages*, would be equally good.

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617. What tendency is there, when the verb is separated from its subject by an intervening substantive? Illustrate this, and show the error. 618. What must be observed, when the subject is a relative pronoun? Illustrate this point. 619. State the principle relating to the title of a book. 620. When a verb stands between two nominatives, with which does it agree? If the nominatives are equally prominent as subjects of discourse, with which may the verb agree?

621. Collective Nouns.—A verb agreeing with a collective noun is put in the plural, unless the action or state is clearly affirmed of the individuals taken together as one body, in which case the singular is required.

"The crowd *were* eager to hear the news." The verb is in the plural, because it was not the crowd as one body, but the individuals in the crowd, that experienced the delight. "The crowd *was* composed of men of every class." Here the crowd as one whole, is evidently meant, and the verb must be in the singular.

622. A collective noun preceded by *this*, *that*, *every*, *each*, or *no*, generally implies one whole, and takes a verb in the singular; as, "Every *mob has* its leader."

623. *Few*, *many*, *hundred*, *thousand*, &c., almost always take a plural verb; as, "A *few have escaped* altogether; a great *many* of the survivors *are* seriously *injured*." "A *hundred* [of] swords *were drawn*."

624. A collective noun in the plural takes a plural verb; as, "Large *crowds were harangued* every day."

FALSE SYNTAX.

Under § 616. "If that is the only difficulty," says I to myself, "we shall soon succeed."

[*Corrected.*—"If that is the only difficulty," *say* I to myself, "we shall soon succeed." *Says* must be changed to *say*, to agree with its subject *I*, in the first, singular.]

Fifty head of cattle was sold yesterday.—The duke may talk as he choose, but he dare not refuse my petition.—Was you at the concert last evening?—If he have brought any news, he will soon let us know.—Each of the states are well represented.—He need to be reminded of his promise.—What means these loud complaints? Was you not warned?—By the term fossils is meant the petrified remains of animals and plants.—To comply with the rules promptly and cheerfully are required of all.

Next, thinks I, he will insult the prince himself.—Suspend

621. Give the rule for a verb agreeing with a collective noun. Give examples. 622. What words before a collective noun generally show that it requires a verb in the singular? 623. What collective nouns almost always take a plural verb? 624. What is said of a collective noun in the plural?

your opinion till the true state of the case have appeared.—There are plenty of oats in Illinois.—My scissors was broken yesterday.—Every one of your arguments are absurd.—What did you say have become of your three cousins?—Five are an odd number.—The animalcula in water is clearly seen with the microscope.—That you should deceive yourself so grossly and so fatally are almost incredible.

Under § 617. The number of immigrants from Ireland have greatly decreased.—The train due last evening, with several others, were detained till the track could be cleared.—The fragrance of honeysuckles and roses fill the air.—Are not twelve months' travel in Europe enough to tire any one?—The absurdity of many of Mohammed's doctrines are self-evident.

Under § 618. Set forth such arguments as seems to you the most conclusive.—Thou mighty spirit of the past that looks upon me with thy melancholy eyes!—Spencer is confessedly one of the ablest men that has written on education.—It is I that is wrong.—The memoranda that is lost, would throw light on the subject.—She is one of those cheerful women that always wears a smile.—Who that have any regard for what is becoming, could dress her hair in this way?

Under § 619, 620. Herschel's "Outlines of Astronomy" are worthy of a place in every student's library.—The chief wealth of the Laplanders are [*consists of*] reindeer.—I have just finished Kennedy's "Memoirs of Wirt", which are certainly extremely interesting.—Five wild turkeys was the reward of my labors.

Under § 621. A herd of a thousand cattle [*is* or *are?*] no uncommon sight.—A whole tribe [*was* or *were?*] sometimes nearly destroyed in war.—A large flock of crows [*has* or *have?*] alighted in the corn-field.—The jury [*is* or *are?*] certainly an intelligent set of men.—The family you relieved still [*remembers* or *remember?*] your kindness.—The committee [*was* or *were?*] indefatigable in their efforts to arrive at the truth.

Under § 622, 623, 624. Each flock that alight, destroy bushels of grain.—Every family you relieved still remember your kindness.—A few inches more or less in a lady's height makes some difference.—A hundred oysters does not occupy much room.—What avails even the mightiest armies, if they are led by incompetent commanders?

LESSON LXXXIII.

FINITE VERBS (CONTINUED).—FALSE SYNTAX.

625. Two or more singular subjects or substantive clauses, taken together, require a plural verb; taken separately, they require a verb in the singular.

EXAMPLES. *Taken together.*—James and John are here.—That you have done your duty, that you have saved me from great loss, are facts that I can not deny.—In the former of these examples, *are* must be parsed as in the third, plural,—agreeing with its subject *James* and *John*, two singular substantives taken together:—*Rule*, A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

Taken separately.—James or John is here.—That you have done your duty or saved me from great loss, is untrue.—In the former of these examples, *is* must be parsed as in the third, singular, agreeing with its subject *James* or *John*, two singular substantives taken separately:—*Rule*, A verb agrees, &c.

626. Subjects are said to be taken together, when they are connected by *and* expressed or understood. "Industry, energy, and honesty, *are* [plu.] essential to success." Or without *and*, "Industry, energy, honesty, *are* [plu.] essential to success."

One of the substantives thus taken together may be understood; as, "Irving's and Macaulay's style are very different,"—that is, Irving's *style* and Macaulay's style.

627. The title of a book, being looked upon as one thing, takes a verb in the singular, even though it consists of two substantives connected by *and*; as, "Moore's '*Paradise and the Peri*' *is* justly *admired*."

628. When two singular substantives connected by *and* denote the same individual, the verb agrees with them in the singular; as, "The *draper* and *tailor* on the corner *is* about to remove."

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625. What is the rule relating to two or more singular subjects or substantive clauses? In the sentence *James and John are here*, name the singular subjects. How are they taken? Parse *are*. In the sentence *James or John is here*, name the singular subjects. How are they taken? Parse *is*. 626. When are subjects said to be taken together? What is said of one of the subjects thus taken together? 627. What exception is mentioned, relating to the title of a book? 628. In what other case does a verb agree in the singular with two singular substantives con-

629. Subjects are said to be taken separately,

1. When they are connected by *or*, *nor*, *and also*, *and too*, *and not*, *but*, *if not*, *as well as*.

"Benton, and General Jackson also, *was* [sing.] a native of North Carolina." "Wellington, but not Nelson, *was born* [sing.] in Ireland."—In these examples, the verb agrees with the former substantive and is understood with the other.

2. When they are severally preceded by *each*, *every*, *no*, or *not*. "Every tempest and every dew-drop *has* [sing,] its mission to perform."

3. When the first is separated from the rest by the verb, which in that case agrees with the first and is understood with the rest. "His wit *pleases* [sing.] me, his frankness, and his courtesy."

4. When the subject is repeated with *and only* or equivalent words, or a stronger term is substituted for the one first used.

"Religion, and religion only, *is* [sing.] an anchor that we can trust." "Dislike, nay hatred, *was written* [sing.] on his countenance."

630. When subjects taken together are of different persons, the plural verb is to be parsed as in the first person rather than the second, and the second rather than the third. Observe, also, that modesty requires a speaker or writer to mention himself last. "She, thou, and I [that is, *we*] *are* [first person] well." "She and thou [that is, *you*] *are* [second person] well."

631. When subjects taken separately are of different persons, the verb should be repeated with each, if a different form is required. "Either you *are* in the wrong, or I *am*." "She *is* very tired, and so *am* I."

632. When subjects connected by *or* or *nor* are in different numbers, the verb should be put in the plural, and the plural subject or subjects should stand nearest to it; as, "Neither rank nor riches *make* me think highly of a man."

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nected by *and*? 629. In what four cases are subjects said to be taken separately? When the connection is made with *and also*, &c., with which substantive does the verb agree? 630. When subjects taken together are of different persons, how is the verb to be parsed? How should *I* be placed? 631. When should the verb be repeated with subjects taken separately? 632. What rule is laid down respecting subjects connected by *or* or *nor*, when they are in different numbers?

FALSE SYNTAX.

UNDER § 625. Neither olive oil nor alcohol are so heavy as distilled water, but milk and sea water is heavier.

[*Corrected.*—Neither olive oil nor alcohol *is* so heavy as distilled water, but milk and sea water *are* heavier. *Are* must be changed to *is*, to agree in the singular with *oil* and *alcohol* taken separately. *Is* must be changed to *are*, to agree in the plural with *milk* and *water* taken together.]

What signifies rank and wealth, if we have not the health to enjoy them?—Neither honor, justice, nor truth, permit you now to draw back.—Your friendly warning and my stern rebuke [*was* or *were?*] alike unheeded.—To sympathize with the sorrowing and relieve the distressed [*is* or *are?*] required of every Christian.—Wonderfully [*has* or *have?*] art and science progressed during the present century.—Lithography, or the art of obtaining impressions from stone, [*is* or *are?*] a modern invention.—That he would betray his trust or try to deceive [*is* or *are?*] not probable.

UNDER § 626. Serf, artisan, noble, prince, was among Peter the Hermit's auditors.—What care we for the indifference, the ingratitude, the scorn of the world, which has been the reward of the good in every age?—The torrid and the frigid zone represents the extremes of heat and cold.—Reaumur's and Fahrenheit's scale is quite different.

UNDER § 627, 628. "Paul and Virginia" are a delightful story.—Simms has just completed "The Sword and the Distaff", which, I am told, are among the best of his productions.—Your friend and cousin, as you always call him, have returned.—Our minister plenipotentiary and envoy extraordinary, with all his suite, are at the National Hotel.

UNDER § 629. Not only Albany, but New York also, were founded by the Dutch.—Peru, and not Mexico, were conquered by Pizarro.—Cuba, as well as Haiti, were discovered by Columbus.—Each village and each hamlet have their petty chief.—Not friendship, not success, not wealth, make a man truly happy.—In Mexico the cactus bloom in great profusion, the magnolia, and the oleander.—Energy, and nothing but energy, are capable of succeeding in a new country.—Folly, even crime, too often meet with no rebuke in fashionable society.

UNDER § 631, 632. Neither my grandfather nor myself are able to put up with this any longer.—Either thou or thy brother hath informed me wrong.—Not only I, but thou also, art to blame.—Neither the tongs nor the poker was in its place.—Either Victoria and her cabinet or Louis Napoleon has made a great mistake.

LESSON LXXXI.

FINITE VERBS (CONTINUED).—FALSE SYNTAX.

633. Errors of various kinds, besides those already noticed, are common in the use of verbs. They consist chiefly in the substitution of one mood or tense for another, the use of corrupt forms, and a want of consistency when two or more verbs stand in the same construction.

634. Do not use the indicative for the subjunctive mood.

635. Use the present subjunctive, not indicative, in a command, prohibition, or warning, after a conjunction following an imperative or such phrases as *it is necessary*. "Have a care lest thou *fall* [not *fallest*]."

636. Use the imperfect subjunctive, not indicative, to express a wish or supposition, when the opposite of what is wished or supposed is really the case; as, "Would Heaven he *were* [not *was*] here!"

637. Use the present indicative to express what is always true, even though the leading verb is past; as, "Many of the ancients believed that the soul *is* [not *was*] immortal."

638. The perfect indicative must be used when past

633. In what do the remaining errors in the use of verbs chiefly consist? 634. What caution is given relating to the subjunctive mood? 635. In what must the present subjunctive, and not the present indicative, be used? 636. What must be expressed with the imperfect subjunctive, and not the imperfect indicative? 637. What must the present indicative be used to express? 638. When must the perfect indicative be used? With what must it not be used? Illustrate these

time connected with the present is denoted, but must not stand with words denoting past time simply.

"They are travelling for the last three months." Here past time terminating at the present is denoted, and the present tense must therefore be changed to the perfect: "They *have been travelling* for the last three months." "A great storm has set in yesterday." Here past time not connected with the present is denoted, and the perfect tense must be changed to the imperfect: "A great storm *set* in yesterday."

639. The imperfect potential is often used in wrong connections.

"Remember that you *might fail* in your attempt [say *may fail*]." "I will not speak of it, even if I *should be asked* [say *if I am asked*, or *be asked*]." "I would not speak of it, even if I *shall be asked* [say *if I should be asked* or *were asked*]."

In like manner we say, "I *will* go, if I *can*;" but, "I *would* go, if I *could*." "I *may* go, if you *will* remain;" but, "I *might* go, if you *would* remain." "I am making, have made, or will make, my arrangements to remain, that you *may* go." "I made or had made my arrangements to remain, that you *might* go."

640. Be careful not to use the imperfect indicative of an irregular verb for the perfect participle, or the perfect participle for the imperfect indicative.

Do not say *has went* for *has gone*, *having wrote* for *having written*, *I seen* for *I saw*, &c. Numerous errors of this kind were presented for correction under the irregular verbs.

641. Avoid corrupt forms.

Among the most common of these are *had have*, for *had*, in the pluperfect; *hadn't ought*, for *ought not; had as lief*, *had rather*, &c., for *would as lief*, *would rather*, &c.; *I'm a mind*, for *I have a mind; arn't*, for *are not; moughtn't*, for *might not*, &c.

642. In combining two or more auxiliaries with a

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points. 639. What tense is often used in wrong connections? Give examples of this error. Is *can* or *could* used in a dependent clause, with *will*? With *would*? Is *will* or *would* used in a dependent clause, with *may*? With *might*? 640. What two parts of irregular verbs must not be used for each other? Give examples of the violation of this rule. 641. Mention some of the corrupt forms most commonly used, and tell what must be substituted for each. 642. In combining two

participle or the root of a verb, be sure that they are all such as can properly be used with it.

"I will give as much as he has." As he has what? Evidently *has give*. Correct by introducing the participle with the latter auxiliary: "I will give as much as he has *given*." "Does he not economize, and even pinches himself, that his family may live comfortably?" *Pinches* must not be used with the auxiliary *does*. Say, "Does he not economize, and even *pinch* himself," &c.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Under § 635, 636. See that thou forgettest not thy friends.

[*Corrected.*—See that thou *forget* not thy friends. *Forgettest* must be changed to *forget*, the present subjunctive, because it expresses an act forbidden, after the conjunction *that*, following the imperative *see*.]

It is proper that he makes an apology.—Use all your efforts, lest she surpasses you.—Oh that the storm was over, and the blessed sun was shining!—If I was a farmer, I should give my attention principally to fruit.—Would that he was as devout as formerly!—She could not be more queenly, if she was a queen.—I wish there was more honesty in the world.

Under § 637. The experiments made on this occasion proved that water was impenetrable.—Copernicus was the first in modern times to teach that the earth moved round the sun.—Were you aware that comets sometimes moved more than a million of miles in an hour?—Columbus had become convinced that the earth was round.

Under § 638. Philosophers, in old times, have taught some strange doctrines.—Living with her several years, I think I know her character.—Newark is long celebrated for the manufacture of carriages.—Seven metals have been known even in early times.—A law has long since been passed, forbidding merchants to encumber the sidewalk.

Under § 639. Railroads are not built, simply that a dozen directors might enrich themselves.—I should speak my mind more freely, if you will promise not to repeat what I say.—We

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or more auxiliaries with a participle or verbal root, what must be seen to? Illustrate this.

shall ultimately find that there is some wise purpose in every affliction, though we could not discover what it was.—Could you not prepare your lessons better, if you try?—Men will not listen to the warnings of the pulpit, that they might profit by them.

UNDER § 641. Had Hume have looked into the matter more closely, he would not have made this misstatement.—Knowing the necessity of energy and perseverance, they hadn't ought to fold their arms at this crisis.—I had as lief remain, but I an't going to do so.—They said the stage moughtn't leave to-morrow, but I'm a mind to risk it.

UNDER § 642. He would sit and read for hours, and then meditated much on what he read.—No poetry more sublime than Milton's ever has or is likely to be written.—Have you ever, or can you imagine, how you would feel, if you were cast upon a desert island?—They could neither realize their misfortune nor provided any remedy for its consequences.

LESSON LXXXV.

THE INFINITIVE.—FALSE SYNTAX.

RULE XII.—INFINITIVES.

643. A verb in the infinitive is used as a subject, or limits the meaning of some other word, or stands independently in the sentence.

EXAMPLES.—*To deceive* [subject] is always wrong.—He chastens, [in order] *to save* [limits the meaning of the noun *order* understood].—Ney offered battle rather than *retreat*.—There are animalcula so small as *to be* invisible.—Miller declared that the world was about *to be destroyed*.—Let strife *cease*.—Bid the repentant *come*.—A house *to let* [intrans.].—*To murmur* or *endure* [used independently]—which is the wiser course?—*To speak* plainly, honesty is at a discount.

643. Recite Rule XII., relating to Infinitives. Give an example of the use of the Infinitive as a subject; of its use as a modifier of other words; of its inde

644. The preposition *for* must not be used immediately before the infinitive; as, "He is trying hard *for to enter* college." Correct by omitting the preposition.

645. The sign *to* must not be separated from the rest of the infinitive by an adverb; as, "*To faithfully represent* this scene would be impossible." Say *faithfully to represent this scene*, or *to represent this scene faithfully.*

646. The sign *to* must not be used for the full infinitive, unless the root of the verb can be supplied from the preceding part of the sentence.

"You might turn your talents to some account; you ought *to*." In dignified composition, *you ought to do so* would be preferred; but the sentence is grammatical as it stands, because we can supply *turn* from the first member and thus correctly complete the infinitive. "You never turned your talents to account; but you ought *to*." Wrong, because, in completing the infinitive from the first member, we should have to say *to turned.* Change to *you ought to have done so.*

647. The infinitive is used without its sign *to* after the following verbs:—

1. BID (meaning *order*), in the active voice; as, "He bids us come." But, "He bids fair [that is, *is likely*] *to* succeed." "He was bidden [passive] *to* prepare."

2. DARE (meaning *venture*), when not in the infinitive, participles, or compound tenses; as, "I dare not speak." Yet *to* is sometimes used; as, "Nobody dares *to* touch him."—*To* must always be used in infinitives after *dare* meaning *challenge*, and after the infinitives, participles, and compound tenses of *dare* meaning *venture;* as, "They will not dare *to* draw back."

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pendent use. 644. What preposition must not be used immediately before the infinitive? 645. What is the rule relating to the separation of the sign *to*? 646. When only may the sign *to* be used for the full infinitive? Give examples of its proper and improper use for the full infinitive. 647. When must the infinitive be used without its sign, and when not, after *bid*? After *dare*? After *feel*? After *hear*? After *make*? Does *to* ever appear in the infinitive after *make*? When does *see* require the omission of *to*, and when not? What verb in both voices requires the omission of *to*? After what other verbs is the sign of the infinitive occasionally

3. FEEL, when transitive and used literally; as, "Did you feel the ball enter?" But, when *feel* is in the passive voice, or is used figuratively of the mind, *to* must be introduced; as, "The ball was felt *to* enter." "I feel it *to* be right."

4. HEAR, in the active voice; as, "Just hear it thunder."

5. MAKE, in the active voice; as, "He made them leave the room." But *to* is sometimes used; as, "Make us *to* love thee."

6. SEE, when transitive, in the active voice; as, "See it rain." When *see* is intransitive, *to* must be introduced; as, "Can you see *to* thread this needle?"

7. LET, in both voices; as, "Let them go." "They were let go."

8. Occasionally, also, after *find*, *have*, *help*, *know*, *behold*, *observe*, *watch*, and in familiar style *please;* as, "Help us pray [or *to pray*]." "Please receipt the bill."

648. After other verbs than those just named, the sign *to* must not be omitted.

649. If two infinitives or more are used in the same construction, the sign *to* generally appears in the first only, unless they are separated by a number of intervening words; as, "Let us try *to do* good and *avoid* evil."

650. Use the present infinitive to express an action or state not completed at the time denoted by the leading verb; the perfect, to express an action or state completed.

"He expected *to return* to-day [not *to have returned*]." "Napoleon had hoped *to occupy* Dresden [not *to have occupied*]." "The Norwegians are thought *to have crossed* the Atlantic before Columbus."

FALSE SYNTAX.

UNDER § 644. Never do alms for to be seen of men.—We all love for to see justice and virtue triumph.—Always strive for to gain the approbation of your own conscience; for to have this is better than great riches.

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omitted? 648. What is said of the sign *to* after other verbs than those just named? 649. What is said respecting the use of this sign, when two infinitives or more are joined in the same construction? 650. What must the present infinitive be used for expressing? What, the perfect infinitive?

UNDER § 645, 646. It is the duty of the good man to sternly rebuke immorality, not only by precept, but also by his example. —The grammarian is not to arbitrarily create rules, but to patiently deduce them from the writings of standard authors.— I seem to distinctly behold the whole scene.—Jackson vetoed the United States Bank, as he had always intended to.—The Pacific Railroad has not been built, but it is likely to before long.

UNDER § 647. The captain bid us to leave the wreck, since he dared not to stay any longer.—I feel the pain to dart from one finger to another, and can almost see my arm to swell.—A few words were let to slip, that made me to apprehend some difficulty.— Do you feel it be right to leave, when you were bidden remain? —When we have dared speak the truth, we feel that we have done right.—You were heard say that you would dare any one to mount your horse.—In this disease, pains are felt shoot through all parts of the body.—You can hear with great distinctness the volcano to rumble, as if cannon were booming in the distance.

UNDER § 648. Do I understand you say that you will not allow us remain?—This movement on Dorchester Heights caused the enemy evacuate Boston. — An idle pupil needs be reminded of the value of time.—Have I not forbidden you talk in school?

UNDER § 650. Before this time to-morrow, we ought certainly to have received news.—A keen speculator would not have let such a chance have passed by unimproved.—Did you expect to have accomplished what no one has ever done before?—You profess to have been disappointed in me; I am sorry to fall short of your expectations.

MISCELLANEOUS.—Murat ordered his cavalry to immediately charge at full gallop.—Many a martyr has died rather than to deny his faith.—You need to do nothing more than to call his attention to the fact.—I shall try to have seen you before to-morrow.—How can I cause my ideas flow more rapidly?—Some credulous minds can be made believe anything.—What went ye out for to see?—You should not have told her to have returned so soon.—I wish you to thoroughly understand the subject.

LESSON LXXXVI.

PARTICIPLES.—FALSE SYNTAX

RULE XIII.—Participles.

651. Participles are used independently, or relate to the substantives whose meaning they qualify or limit.

Examples. *Used independently.*—There is no way of *becoming* a thorough scholar without patient study.—*Judging* from appearances, the west will soon be settled.—It is dangerous *standing* so near the edge of the precipice.—What is worth *doing* at all is worth *doing* well.

Relating to substantives.—*They* continued *praying.*—*I* intend *starting* immediately.—Cease [*you*] *tormenting* me.—*Rewarded* with the lucrative office of master of the mint, *Newton* enjoyed an honorable and well-deserved competence.

652. A participle often stands independently in a substantive clause used as the subject or object of a verb; as, "His *being* here is no secret."

653. Position.—A participle generally follows its substantive. But, if the substantive is the subject of a verb, it is sometimes better to place it after the participial clause. See the last example in § 651.

It always sounds ill to introduce a participial clause between a pronoun and the verb that agrees with it; as, "I, worn out with fatigue, seized a few moments for repose." Correct by placing the participial clause before the substantive: "Worn out with fatigue, I seized a few moments for repose."

654. When a participle is not used independently, see that it is joined to the word to which it really relates.

"By neglecting to punish the vicious, vice is encouraged." Wrong,

651. Recite Rule XIII., relating to participles. Give examples of participles used independently. Give examples of participles relating to substantives. 652. Where does a participle often stand independently? 653. How does a participle stand, as regards its substantive? Where does it sound ill to introduce a participial clause? How is such an arrangement to be corrected? 654. When a par-

because *neglecting* is here joined to *vice*, as if vice neglected to punish the vicious. Correct by introducing the substantive to which *neglecting* really relates: "By neglecting to punish the vicious, *we* encourage vice."

655. The participle of a transitive verb governs the objective. The preposition *of*, therefore, should not be introduced between such a participle and its object; as, "by erecting *of* statues," "for controlling *of* elections". Correct by omitting *of*.

656. When *the*, *an* or *a*, *this*, or *that*, is introduced before a participle, the latter becomes a noun and loses its participial construction.

In such cases, the construction of a noun is assumed throughout. An adjective, but not an adverb, may be used as a modifier; and *of* must be introduced if an object follows: as, "by this erecting of statues," "for the more effectual [not *effectually*] controlling of elections".—Observe, however, that the common kindred noun, when there is one, is often to be preferred; as, "by this *erection* of statues," "for the more effectual *control* of elections".

FALSE SYNTAX.

UNDER § 653. He, feeling his deficiencies, returned to school.

[*Corrected.*—Feeling his deficiencies, he returned to school. The participial clause must not separate the pronoun *he* from the verb *returned*, which agrees with it.]

On receipt of this news, he, thinking that he now had an opportunity of advancing his fortunes, sailed for Europe.—You, after making all these sacrifices, will find that you have gained nothing.—Why should I attempt to comfort her? for she, fearing the worst, has closed her ears to all words of comfort.

UNDER § 654. Resting on the brow of the hill, the spires of the far-distant city met our view.—Accompanied as they are with such incessant toil, who would care for the honors of office?—Groaning and reeling under its load, we saw the stage-coach

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ticiple is not used independently, to what must we see that it is joined? 655. What case does the participle of a transitive verb govern? What follows with respect to the preposition *of*? 656. When does a participle become a noun? In such cases, what construction is assumed? What is meant by its assuming the construction of a noun? What is often to be preferred to this participial noun?

slowly ascending the hill.—While pondering which course I should pursue, my horse pricked up his ears and set out briskly on the right-hand road, dripping with sweat and covered with mud.

UNDER § 655. There is no charity in giving of money to the intemperate.—By helping of others, we often help ourselves.—A public library was founded for promoting of the general intelligence.—True happiness generally results from doing of one's duty.

UNDER § 656. There is no charity in the giving money to the intemperate.—True happiness generally results from the doing one's duty.—This mere reading books can not educate a man truly.—The following an upright course is a requirement of policy as well as duty.—That neglecting the divine law which so often proved fatal to the ancient Israelites, will be found quite as fatal in our own case.

LESSON LXXXVII.

PARTICIPLES (CONTINUED).—FALSE SYNTAX.

RULE XIV.—POSSESSIVE BEFORE A PARTICIPLE.

657. A substantive which, in stead of being modified by a participle, is made to modify the latter, is put in the possessive case.

EXAMPLES.—Who first conceived the idea of the *moon's* being inhabited?—I have no objection to *his* becoming a merchant.—Did you hear of *my* teaching school at Huntsville?—They were surprised at *her* reading so well.

658. A participle thus modified by a substantive in the possessive case is used independently.

659. A participle modified by a substantive in the possessive does not become a noun. This is shown by its sometimes taking an object and being modified by an adverb,—like the participle *taking* in this sentence.

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657. Recite Rule XIV., relating to a substantive modifying a participle. Give examples, and in each tell what the possessive modifies. 658. How is a participle modified by a possessive used? 659. Prove that a participle modified by a sub-

660. When a participle relates to a substantive, the substantive is the leading word. When a participle is modified by a possessive, the participle is the leading word. Use, therefore, the former of these constructions, if the substantive denotes the leading subject of discourse; the latter, if the participle denotes it.

"Cicero, fearing an outbreak, bade Catiline leave the city." It was Cicero that bade Catiline leave; hence we make the noun *Cicero* the subject, and join the participle to it as a modifier. "Cicero, allowing Catiline to leave the city, may appear strange to some." Wrong, because it is not Cicero that may appear strange, but his allowing Catiline to leave the city. We therefore change *Cicero* to the possessive, that it may modify the participle, and make the whole participial clause the subject of the verb *may appear:* "Cicero's allowing Catiline to leave the city may appear strange to some."

661. If the use of the participle is attended with awkwardness or obscurity, substitute for it a noun, an infinitive, a finite verb with *that*, or some other equivalent construction.

"A man's utterly neglecting the laws of health must sooner or later bring on disease." Correct thus: "An utter neglect of the laws of health must sooner or later bring on disease." "They refuse accepting the offered mercy." Say, "They refuse to accept," or simply "They refuse the offered mercy." "I remember its being considered quite a voyage to ascend the Hudson to Albany." Improve thus: "I remember that it was considered," &c. "The English language's containing so many synonymes is explained by our having drawn our words from so many different sources." Very awkward, and inadmissible; say, "The fact that the English language contains so many synonymes is explained by our having drawn our words from so many different sources."

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stantive in the possessive does not become a noun. 660. When a participle relates to a substantive, which is the leading word? When a participle is modified by a substantive, which is the leading word? How are we to choose between these constructions? Illustrate this. 661. What must be done, if the use of the participle is attended with awkwardness or obscurity? Give an example in which a noun should be substituted for the participle. Give one in which an infinitive should be substituted. Give one in which a finite verb with *that* should be substituted.

FALSE SYNTAX.

UNDER § 657. There is no hope of such a man keeping pace with the spirit of the age.

[*Corrected.*—There is no hope of such a *man's* keeping pace with the spirit of the age. *Man* must be changed to the possessive *man's*, to modify the participle *keeping*.]

A sense of self-respect prevents us indulging in recrimination.—Have you ever heard of a pear being grafted on a mountain-ash?—There is no probability of Stephen arriving to-day.—What do you think of him visiting Germany?—Even the tops of mountains furnish us with evidence of the world having been overflowed by a deluge.

UNDER § 660. Some people think there is no advantage in children studying Greek.—Plutarch, commencing the study of Latin when nearly eighty years old, appears almost incredible.—I can not understand them refusing to receive you.—I place no confidence in a man's boasting of what he can do.

UNDER § 661. We shall hereafter forbear endeavoring to conciliate them.—A nation's extending its territory too widely has sometimes proved fatal to its existence.—The having committed yourself to an error is no excuse for continuing in that error.—Arnold's betraying of the trust reposed in him was unpardonable.—This accidental discovering of gold in Australia led to the emigration of thousands thither.

MISCELLANEOUS.—Active measures were taken for the more speedily restoring of order.—It is not by the adding to what we have, but by the cutting off artificial wants, that we become truly rich.—Now is the time for retrenching of unnecessary expenses and diligently employing of every moment.—Such an emptying purses was perhaps never seen before.—I can not approve of any one's persisting in such deceit.—Among the most important duties of the Christian is setting of a good example to his fellow men.

The doing justice to so complicated a case will require the consulting many authorities.—By teaching of others we learn many things ourselves.—Is there any prospect of a telegraph cable being laid across the Atlantic?—There is some doubt of the Crusades having benefited Europe.—Who ever heard of a hyena being tamed?

LESSON LXXXVIII.

ADVERBS.—FALSE SYNTAX.

RULE XV.—THE ADVERB.

662. An adverb relates to the word or words whose meaning it modifies, or stands independently in the sentence.

EXAMPLES.—Try *hard.*—*Far out* at sea, we saw a *very* singular sight.—Are you *quite* in the dark? *Yes.*—We shall *certainly* leave *before* he arrives.—*By and by there* was a great noise.—You may go *further* and fare *worse; consequently*, you might *as well* remain.

663. Do not use *how*, *as how*, or *how that*, for the conjunction *that;* or *how*, for *lest* or *that not.*

"She said *as how* she would come." "Have a care *how* you listen to the tempter." Correct thus: "She said *that* she would come." "Have a care *that* you do *not* listen to the tempter."

664. Do not use the adverb *no* for *not.*

No is used independently in answering questions; or it may modify an adjective or adverb in the comparative degree. But it must not be joined to an adjective in the positive degree, or to a verb, expressed or understood. We say *no wiser*, *no sooner;* but, "Handsome or *not* [that is, *not handsome*], I admire her." "Will you promise or *not* [that is, *not promise*]?" In the last two examples, *no* would be wrong.

665. In expressing a negation, do not use two negatives in the same clause or member; as, "I did *not* do *nothing.*" "It makes *no* difference to you *nor* me." Correct by omitting or changing one of the negatives: "I did not do *anything*," or "I did nothing." "It makes no difference to you *or* me."

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662. Recite Rule XV., relating to adverbs. Give examples, and in each mention to what the adverb relates. 663. What must not be used for the conjunction *that?* 664. What must not be used for *not?* How may *no* be used? What may it modify? To what must it not be joined? Illustrate this. 665. In expressing

666. *Exceptions.*—1. A negative may be repeated in the same clause or member; as, "*Not* rank, *not* wealth, constitutes true happiness."

2. Two correlative negatives may be used; as, "*Neither* rank *nor* wealth constitutes true happiness."

3. A negative, and a derivative formed with a negative prefix, may be used together, to express an affirmation; as, "*Nor* is it *improper*,"—that is, *it is proper*.

667. Two negatives formerly strengthened the negation, and were used for this purpose by old writers. Thus in Beaumont and Fletcher we read, "By *no* means be *not* seen." While we have discarded such constructions generally, we still retain another negative with *but* in the common form of expression *can not but*. "I can not but rejoice."

668. The rules laid down for the comparative and the superlative degree in § 612, 613, under adjectives, apply also to adverbs.

The former of the terms compared must be excluded from the latter when the comparative is used, but included when we use the superlative. "The elephant is said to live *longer* than any *other* animal." "The elephant is said to live the *longest* of all animals [not *of any animal*]."

669. Position.—Adverbs should stand near the words to which they relate. They generally precede adjectives, stand after the first auxiliary in compound tenses, and in other tenses follow the verb. Observe the position of the adverbs in the following examples:—

Examples.—*Quite* pretty; *very* pretty; *so* pretty; pretty *enough*.—He was *easily* saved.—He was saved *easily enough*.—He might *easily* have been saved.—He ought to be *seriously* reprimanded.—*Always* dare to act *right*.—*Never* betray a trust.—Having *never* betrayed a trust, I can look my neighbors *proudly* in the face.—*Down* came the rain.—The rain came *down*.

When there is a choice of positions, select the one that best suits the ear.

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a negation, what must not be used? 666. In what two cases may two negatives be used? With what kind of a derivative may a negative be used? 667. What was formerly the effect of two negatives? What construction with a double negative have we retained? 668. What principles apply to the comparative and the superlative degree of adverbs? 669. Give the rule for the position of adverbs, and il-

670. Care must be taken to place *only* and *not only* next to the word or words they are intended to modify. Otherwise they give a wrong impression of the meaning.

If I say, "He only hires the store," *only* modifies *hires*, and the impression conveyed is that another verb will follow: He only *hires* the store, he does not *own* it. If I say, "He hires only the store," *only* modifies *store*, and the meaning is, He hires the store, but nothing else—not the rest of the house.

"He not only reads Latin but Greek." Wrong, because *not only* is so placed as to modify *reads*, as if some other verb were to follow: He not only *reads* Latin, but also *writes* it. But *not only* is intended to modify *Latin*, and must therefore be placed next to it: "He reads *not only* Latin but Greek."

671. So, the adverbs *chiefly*, *mostly*, &c., must stand immediately before or after an adjunct that they are intended to modify; as, "The productions consist mostly [not *mostly consist*] of corn and cotton." "It was by hunting and fishing chiefly that the Indians subsisted,"—not, "It was by hunting and fishing that the Indians chiefly subsisted."

FALSE SYNTAX.

UNDER § 663, 664. We thus see how afflictions are often sent for our good.—Do you think as how it will rain to-day?—Kossuth heard how that the army had surrendered.—Take care how you associate with the wicked.—It is uncertain whether the planets are inhabited or no.—Ready or no, you must start at once.—All men grow old, whether they will or no.

UNDER § 665. Don't you care for nobody?—Nothing was never gained by dishonesty.—No other king of Israel was so wise nor powerful as Solomon.—Let no one at no time speak irreverently in your presence unrebuked.—In this connection no principles can be laid down, nor no rules given, that will cover every point.—We can not in no way ascertain the exact size of the fixed stars.

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lustrate it with examples. When there is a choice of positions, by what must we be guided? 670. What caution is given in the case of *only* and *not only*? Prove by an example that a change in the position of *only* alters the meaning. Show how *not only* may be placed incorrectly. 671. How must the adverbs *chiefly*, *mostly*, &c., stand?

UNDER § 668. Railroads open up a country the most rapidly of any internal improvements.—Chess fascinates its votaries more, perhaps, than any game.—Of all other bubbles, the Mississippi Scheme terminated the most disastrously.—Linnæus was the most enthusiastic and industrious of other naturalists.

UNDER § 669. He must have certainly been detained.—They twice give, that quickly give.—Trust the wicked not.—Having not studied Italian, you can not so well enjoy the beauties of Petrarch as otherwise you might do.—Think of Balboa now, as the broad Pacific burst on his enraptured eyes gloriously.—If we ever so little transgress the laws of nature, ultimately we rue it.

UNDER § 670, 671. We not only obtained Louisiana, but Florida also, by purchase.—If education refined only the manners, we might do without it; but it also disciplines the mind and improves the heart.—California not only produces gold in great abundance, but quicksilver also.—The Russians mostly belong to the Greek church.—It was by the English, French, Spanish and Dutch, that the new world was principally colonized.

LESSON LXXXIX.

PREPOSITIONS.—FALSE SYNTAX.

RULE XVI.—THE PREPOSITION.

672. A preposition shows the relation that a substantive, infinitive, or participle bears to some other word or words in the sentence.

EXAMPLES.—*Contrary to* my expectations, I found the performances *about* to begin.—*Without* concealing anything, tell me whether he is *out of* danger.—The silvery beams fell *aslant* the earth.—Pursue your way *with* a bold heart, trusting *to* Him, who is ever a sure help *in* time *of* need.

673. After certain verbs, *by* is used before a word denoting an agent or living object, *with* before a word denoting an instrument or inanimate

672. Recite Rule XVI., relating to prepositions. Give examples, and point out in each the terms of the relation denoted by the preposition. 673. How are *by*

object. We say, accompanied *by* his friends, accompanied *with* illustrations; attended *by* a servant, attended *with* evil consequences; illustrated *by* an artist, *with* engravings; killed *by* an assassin, *with* a dagger. *Followed* takes *by* only.

674. *Between* and *betwixt* must be used of two objects only; *among* and *amongst*, of three or more; as, "*Between* you and me, I will divide this farm *among* my three sons."

675. Certain prepositions must follow certain words. Even the same word sometimes takes different prepositions, according to the sense in which it is used. The pupil will find below a list of words with the proper preposition annexed, covering those cases in which there is the greatest tendency to error.

Abhorrent *to*.
Accommodate (adapt) one thing *to* another; (supply) a person *with*.
Accuse *of*, not *with*.
Acquaint *with*.
Acquit *of*.
Adapted *to*.
Adequate *to*.
Adhere, adherence, *to*.
Angry *with* a person, *at* a thing.
Antipathy *to*, *against*.
Arrive *at*, *in*, not *to*.
Averse *to*, *from*.
Bestow *on*.
Charge a thing *on* a person; a person *with* a thing.
Compare *with* (in respect of quality); *to* (by way of illustration). "I compare Pope *with* Dryden, hope *to* an anchor."
Confide *in*.
Conform, conformity, *to*, *with*.
Copy *after* a person, *from* nature.
Correspond *with*, *to*.
Deprive *of*.
Die *of* a disease; *by* an instrument, *by* one's own hand, *by* violence.
Differ *with* a person in opinion, *from* a person or thing in some quality.
Different *from*, not *to*.
Disappointed *of* a thing not obtained, *in* a thing obtained.
Dislike *to*.
Enamoured *of*.
Entrance *into*.
Foreign *to*, *from*.
Founded *on* or *upon* a basis; *in* truth or error.
Frightened *at*.

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and *with* used after certain verbs? Illustrate this. What does *followed* take? 674. How are *between* and *betwixt* to be distinguished in use from *among* and *amongst*? 675. What is said of the necessity of using prepositions in certain cases? What prepositions are used after *accommodate* in its different senses (see the list)? After *compare*? After *prevail*? After *reconcile*? When must *on* be used after *charge*, and when *with*? When must *of* be used after *disappointed*, and when *in*? When must *with* be used after *overwhelmed*, and when *by*?

Incorporate *into*, *with*.
Independently *of*, not *on*.
Initiation *into*.
Inroad *into*.
Liberal *of* what is given.
Meddle *with*.
Need *of*.
Overwhelmed *with* a feeling, *with* shame; *by* an agent, *by* the waves.
Partake, commonly *of*, sometimes *in*.
Participate *with* a person, *in* a thing.
Prefer, preferable, *to*.
Prevail *on*, *upon*, *with* (persuade); *over*, *against* (overcome).
Reconcile (make friendly) *to*; (make consistent) *with*.
Redolent *of*.
Remonstrate *with* a person, *against* a thing.
Rid *of*.
Skilful *in*, *at*.
Smile *at*, (to express favor) *on*.
Suitable *to*, *for*.
Sympathize *with*.
Vest a thing *in* a person, a person *with* a thing.
Weary *of*.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Under § 673. Here is a life of Johnson, accompanied by copious extracts from his writings.

[*Corrected.*—Here is a life of Johnson, accompanied *with* copious extracts from his writings. *By* must be changed to *with*, because *accompanied* is followed by *with*, before a word denoting an inanimate object.]

The queen was attended with a large retinue; her arrival was hailed by rejoicings.—Here our travellers were surrounded with a troup of monkeys.—My departure was attended by many misgivings.—With whom were you accompanied?—We were overcome by sorrow.—The good ship sunk, overwhelmed with the surging waters.

Under § 674. Distribute these presents between James and his brothers.—I never before saw so great a resemblance among twins.—A quarrel arose amongst the old soldiers and the recruits.—He divides his time betwixt law, medicine, and politics.

Under § 675. We all have need for some one on whom we can confide.—Long and bitterly have I repented for the crime with which I am now accused.—Every person should conform his practice with his preaching.—She smiles at all that profess to be enamoured with her.—Marius was liberal with his money, and still more liberal in promises.—Rid yourself from such prejudices,

or people will be disgusted at you.—Meddle not in what does not concern you.

Your theory seems to be founded on truth, yet it is quite different to any that I have hitherto heard advanced.—Profit from the lessons thus taught.—How do you reconcile his professions to his conduct.—This should be incorporated in the book.—I am compelled to differ from you.—Far preferable is a private life than this constant turmoil.—Honey redolent with spring perfumed the air.—For the unfortunate the good man always sympathizes, but not for the wicked.

LESSON XC.

CONJUNCTIONS.—FALSE SYNTAX.

RULE XVII.—The Conjunction.

676. A conjunction connects words, sentences, or parts of a sentence.

Examples.—*Notwithstanding*, *if* you will examine the subject more closely, you will see *that* I am right.—Let us do right, *whether* other men do so *or* not.—*Yet* no lyric poet is more sublime *than* he.—Pindar, *than* who no lyric poet is more sublime, was a Theban.—They overran Italy, *and* the Eastern Empire *as well*.

677. Do not use *if* for *whether*,—or *but*, *but that*, or *lest* for *that*,—after the verbs *doubt*, *fear*, *deny*, or their equivalents.

"Do you know *if* [correct to *whether*] a train will start this evening?" "Pope was apprehensive *lest* [say *that*] his meaning might be mistaken." "Nobody can deny *but that* [say *that*] experience is the best teacher."

678. Do not use *but* for *than*, after *else*, *other*, or *otherwise*.

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676. Recite Rule XVII., relating to conjunctions. Give examples, and in each tell what the conjunction connects. 677. What must not be used for *whether*? What must not be used for *that*? Give examples of the improper use of these conjunctions. 678. What conjunction must be used after *else*, *other*, and *otherwise*?

"Prevarication is nothing else *but* [correct to *than*] falsehood." "There is no other way of pleasing some people *but* [say *than*] by flattering them." "Who could do otherwise *but* [say *than*] accept so cordial an invitation?"

679. *Than*, which is used after the comparative degree, is always a conjunction, and does not govern the objective case.

Milton says "*than whom* none higher sat"; and other writers, following him, have construed *than* with the objective, as if it were a preposition. This is ungrammatical and should be avoided. *Than* has no governing power, but is followed by the nominative, possessive, or objective, according to the relation sustained to some word or words understood. "You are taller than *he* [is]." "Your hand is larger than *his* [hand]." "I love you more than [I love] *him*." "Than *who* [sat] none higher sat." "Than *whose* [head] no head is higher." "Than [I love] *whom* I love none more."

680. When two words or clauses joined by a conjunction have a common connection with some third word or clause, this last term must be adapted in construction to both of the preceding ones.

"Henry is older, but not so large, as Thomas." Wrong, because the last term *as* can not be properly used with the first term *older;* we can not say *older as Thomas.* For a similar reason it is wrong to say, "He is older, but not so tall, *than* Thomas." Correct thus: "Henry is older than Thomas, but not so tall."

"You can not bestow or bequeath it to a more deserving person." We can not say *bestow to.* Change *bestow* to *give*, and then the preposition *to* will be applicable to both verbs: "You can not give or bequeath it to a more deserving person."

681. Certain conjunctions are used in contiguous

What must not be used after them? 679. What is said of *than*? What expression does Milton use? With what have other writers construed *than*? What is said of this construction? What determines the case of the substantive following *than*? Give examples. 680. What is required, when two words or clauses joined by a conjunction have a common connection with some third word or clause? Illustrate this rule. 681. When are conjunctions said to be correlatives? Mention some correlative conjunctions. What must be used as the correlative of *neither*? What correlatives must be used after a negative denying equality of degree?

clauses as correlatives: as, *though, yet; both, and; either, or; whether, or.*

There is no liability to error in the use of these correlatives, except in two cases.

1. Be careful to use *nor*, not *or*, as the correlative of *neither*. "Neither youth *nor* [not *or*] innocence availed as a protection."

2. Be careful to use *so, as*—not *as, as*—after a negative denying equality of degree. "Few ancient cities were *so* [not *as*] magnificent as Babylon."

FALSE SYNTAX.

UNDER § 677. I doubt if the world ever saw such a fleet before.

[*Corrected.*—I doubt *whether* the world ever saw such a fleet before. *If* must not be used for *whether*.]

It is uncertain if a swan lives longer than a raven.—Can you tell me if the Danube is the longest river in Europe?—I am fearful lest the storm may overtake them.—There is no doubt but that Germany has produced many great men.—You certainly can not doubt but he will keep his promise.

UNDER § 678. Washington had nothing else at heart but his country's good.—Never act otherwise but honorably.—What other motive but the purest patriotism could have stimulated him to such sacrifices?—She would not have done it for any one else but him.

UNDER § 679. There are many noble women, but none nobler than her.—Even Blair, than whom few rhetoricians stand higher, frequently makes grammatical mistakes.—I look on none with more contempt than they.

UNDER § 680. Quicksilver is not so useful, but more valuable, than iron.—The moon is nearer, though not so bright, as the sun.—This honor should be conferred and confined to the best student.—The road is longer and inferior to what we supposed it would be.—Sin is generally accompanied and followed by reproaches of conscience.

UNDER § 681. Such idlers should neither be pitied or assisted.—Neither the wastes of Sahara or the parched plains of central Australia seem to have been designed for the habitation of man or beast.—Neither Europe or Africa is as large as Asia.—Nothing

else pleases a weak mind as much as flattery.—Few lived as plainly as Mohammed.

LESSON XCI.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISE IN FALSE SYNTAX.

682. Further exercises in false syntax, promiscuously arranged, are now presented for correction. They may be divided into lessons of convenient length.

You and me—the Almighty hath created both.—I wish I was her! Yes, but to be her is impossible.—No one could have acted more gallantly than him who bore the standard of the legion.—This ring is almost as dear to me as her who gave it.—And thee too, brave son of Abas—I saw thee fall.—The principal is not only due, but also five years interest.

The first of April is called All fools Day.—Beds are stuffed with cat-tails', but not with cats' tails.—For common decency sake, be silent.—John Ray, his book.—Demosthenes orations are more nervous than Æschines.—I have read Cowper and Pope's Translation of Homer; the one is in rhyme, the other in blank verse.—Here is the three judges' of the supreme court opinion.—The historian Josephus works are written in Greek.

Victoria's and Albert's eldest daughter has married the prince of Prussia.—Bancroft's, the historian's, reputation is deservedly great.—The governor's of Texas life has been an eventful one.—These volumes are Mr. Hay's clerk's wife's brother's.—Rumors of the death of the captain of the Star of the West, of Liverpool, were current in Wall Street.—He who is wise in his own conceit I never could tolerate.—Two court-martials were held.

Send up fifty pound of butter, some pickled sheeps' tongues, and ten heads of fat cattle.—Let all good men rejoice at this, even he who has never rejoiced before.—I do not wish for any coffee this morning.—Distribute a few pence among those two poor dwarves.—Beware evil practices.—Montezuma was denied even this slight favor.—David and Jonathan loved one another.

La Fayette was voted a township of land and two hundred thousand dollars by Congress.—Those men, who thought them-

selves more wiser than others, have fallen a victim to their own passions.—Were you paid the money?—Oxford University is of eight centuries old.—Each pupil is expected to govern themselves.—The mob, having next broken into some jewellers stores, begun to fill its pockets with precious stones.

Whom do you suppose it was?—Who do you suppose it to be?—Where have you bought them pencils? At Mr. Tilden's, the bookseller's.—Those who consider themselves a good critic are not so considered always by others.—I will lend you my tweezers, if you would be sure to return it.—The people of Finland is called Finns'.—Be sure not to tell nobody whom you are.

He was able to have supported himself and family, and certainly ought to.—Nothing hurts my feelings more nor as much as a friend's betraying of the trust I have reposed on him.—Every soldier exerted themselves to the utmost, as if on them alone depended the issue of the battle.—Full many a good man is overlooked in this world; but in the world to come his good deeds will be remembered.—He said as how he would come.

Saturn is surrounded with three bright rings, the inner one of which is nineteen thousand miles from the surface of the planet.—The jury could not agree, and so the judge allowed it to separate.—The board of directors looked gravely; in fact a frown begun to settle on its face.—Can nothing be done to induce this fop and coxcomb to abandon their folly?—These here mosquitoes are very troublesome.—It was this same Cortez who conquered Mexico.

Saint and sinner will rise together at the last day, to hear his doom pronounced.—The most beautiful people which are known are the Circassians.—It seems as if one or the other must lose their life in the conflict.—Otis, as well as Hancock, raised their voices against this new aggression.—Some German critics maintain (which I can not believe) that no such man as Homer never lived.—Neither John or his wife seem to care much for the example they set their children.

Elizabeth, and her father Henry also, had their favorites.—Not only Charlemagne, but Haroun al Raschid also, rose superior to the princes of their time.—Every man has certain rights from which they can not be deprived.—Francis did not remain long in

the school his father placed him.—No substance which yet has been discovered is as heavy as iridium.

There are two species of buffalo: one inhabiting the northern parts of Europe, and which has become very scarce; the other, a native of America, and which is more properly called the bison.—God watches over us as a father, who He is even to the most unworthy of His creatures.—The conversation turned on the generals and battles who had decided the fate of empires.

Hand me that tongs.—He lets houses and collects rents, and by this means manages to live.—The very events which we most deplore sometimes turn out most fortunately.—One or the other of us are greatly mistaken in their opinion.—Both parties can not be right; you or we must be mistaken in your views.—If either the king or queen knew the condition of their subjects, they would do their utmost to relieve them.

A snake was never seen there, that I know of [*as far as I know*].—Who can be expected to remember the names of all the authors and books which the present century has produced? —They say, which I do not believe, that some people die of a broken heart.—The rattle-snake, one of the most poisonous of reptiles, and who grows from four to six feet in length, is only found in America.

Every one should try to distinguish themselves in their profession.—Measure out five bushel of this oats.—The old and new house were both burnt.—Holland, a country that has been rescued from the sea, and which possesses very little natural advantages, has been converted into one vast garden by the industry of its inhabitants.—We have some beautiful variegated pansies; here is a yellow and a blue one.

I admit it is dry, the study of grammar.—Robert promises his father that he would take his advice and try hard to pay his debts. —Send home a couple of gallon of those same molasses we have been using.—Pope at one time studied painting, but Nature had made him a greater poet than an artist.

An ant is a model of provident industry; a grasshopper is a type of thoughtless indolence.—The self-devotion, no less than courage, of La Fayette, commands our admiration.—It is plain from the movements of that poor child that it is grieving for his

brother.—Old stout gentlemen are generally good-humored.—When Talent and Industry contend for the prize, the latter is the oftenest winner.

The price of cotton is fallen.—She moves very graceful.—The whole family have lovelily carried out the principles of their religion.—The room was not sufficiently het.—They had sawed the wood before I seen what they was doing.—Name each king of England in succession. [As *succession* implies more than one, it should be *Name the kings*, &c.]

Who can contemplate without a shudder the hereafter life of the wicked?—It is thou that has ruined me.—The "Pleasures of Hope" were written by Campbell.—The moon was by this time risen.—A humble mind is ever ready for to acknowledge its faults.—Every person has their friends and enemies; the former he should seek to conciliate, the latter to confirm in their attachment.—Crœsus had much possessions.

He is entirely undeserving commendation.—Texas or Florida, if not both, were admitted into the Union in 1845.—The people is united in its determination to have the most universal freedom of suffrage.—You should have made them have shook those carpets before this.—The indifference, nay the neglect, of the world, too often blight the aspirations of genius.—I wish that I was in Europe.

The news of the Constellation's being wrecked and the greater part of her crew's being lost, were received this morning.—I have heard how that the human body contains about thirty pounds of blood.—"Crime and Mystery" have just been published.—Neither arguments or force was able to make any impression.—Do not desert your father or mother in their old age.

The mind whence such sentiments could come, must be depraved hopelessly.—Napoleon found Moscow in flames, which was totally unexpected.—Was you able to buy me a brass compasses?—Them shoes are not too large; I have no fears but what they will answer.—In the torrid zone, a wet and dry season take the place of winter and summer.—Prudence and courage are both essential to the good general; this in the council, that on the field.

Neither the horse or the mule have as great powers of endurance as the camel.—The phenomena observed last evening

was well worth seeing.—The youngest of my two brother-in-laws is the shrewdest.—He, tired of life, declared that nothing but trials and disappointments are met with in the world.—In abandoning of the throne, Charles V. hoped to have regained the peace of mind which he had long been deprived of.—Have you waken your friend?

A rose by any other name would smell as sweetly.—California is now producing more gold than any country in the world.—London is further north than any other city in America.—If Xerxes had have succeeded in conquering Greece, what incalculable changes would have been made in the world's history!—I have and ever shall insist on the necessity of strict economy on the part of government.—The rain disappointed us in our excursion; we could not go.

Your garden looks much better since you wed it.—To what conclusion do you arrive?—Making the experiment, air was found to be impenetrable.—Where has the snuffers gone?—It must have been hard to have endured such sufferings.—He does not mean to deliberately affront us.—Why have you not kept the promise you have made when I was at your house?

A honorable man looks down upon the deceitful with supremest contempt.—La Fayette is the best character of any in French history.—He is one of those unfortunates that is always discontented with his lot.—Has that suds been thrown out?—We have now a more promising, wider, and pleasanter field for operations.—A few hours delay is not of much consequence.

The crew is loud in its complaints.—The mule, if it is less handsome than the horse, is certainly the most enduring.—Which is the brightest of those two stars?—The ladies of old times seem to implicitly have believed that they would preserve their beauty by washing in dew.—I, reflecting on the mutability of human things, came to the conclusion that all was vanity and vexation of spirit.

He has waxen all the threads.—Cairo is the largest of any city in Africa.—Anger is a scorpion that stings itself; take care that thou dost not find it so.—The earliest experiments with the air-pump showed that air was essential to life and combustion.—Of what use are fierceness of gesture or loudness of tone to the orator?—Have a care how you give way to the first advances of

sin.—The way how they give their china ware such a lively coloring is a secret.

The question is whether the people should elect judges or no.—The heathens are perished out of the land.—I told him that if he went to-morrow I shall go with him.—Dwarf pear-trees are sometimes loaded down by fruit.—Where is Robert, Jane, and Frank? I have some cherries to divide between them.

A machine has been invented for the more easily and economically elevating of grain to such heights as may be required.—Just think of me entering into one of the fashionable saloons of Saratoga in such a garb.—No Roman emperor was so cruel nor tyrannical as Nero.—The Swiss have defended their liberties the most resolutely of any other nation.

The manufactures of Belgium chiefly consist of laces, silks, and carpets.—Can I not prevail over you to return with me?—Your hat is altogether prettier and preferable to mine.—I have no other friend but thou.—Ben Jonson says that the poet Spenser died by want.—There were some disagreeable persons along, and so we was disappointed of our excursion.

The weary sailors heard with delight the woods and groves to reĕcho the notes of countless songsters, and saw with rapture the trees to bend under a load of fruit.—You must have felt the needle have passed into the flesh.—A diphthong consists of two vowels' forming one sound.—It is singular how an uneducated tinker could have produced such a great work.

Willing or no, we must all die.—An eclipse of the moon is caused by the earth getting between it and the sun.—No disease was more loathsome nor more dreaded by the people than leprosy.—Cotton, as a crop, is more valuable, but not so certain, as corn.—She will not sing for anybody else but he.—She had rather stay, if you will promise to stay with her.—They dared not to start.

He no sooner entered into the house but he came rushing out again with these bad news.—Whom, when they had scourged him, they let him go.—Thou shouldst treasure up these counsels deep in your heart.—When money is to be made, be it never so little, every man strives their best to be first on the ground.—They compose the easiest, that have learned to compose.

LESSON XCII.

RULES FOR CAPITALS

683. Most words commence with small letters. Capitals must be used when required by the following rules, and only then :—

RULES FOR THE USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS.

684. Begin with a capital,

I. Every sentence and every line of poetry.

EXAMPLES.—Forget others' faults.—How bright the day!—What is fame?—Custom forms us all.

"Time is the warp of life; oh! tell
The young, the fair, to weave it well."

II. All proper nouns, and titles of office, honor, and respect.

EXAMPLES.—Henry the Fowler, emperor of the Germans; Robert Roe, Esquire; Elizabeth Barrett Browning; the Red River; the Strait of Gibraltar; High Bridge; Union Square; the Superior Court of the City of New York; July; Monday.

III. All adjectives formed from proper nouns.

EXAMPLES.—African, Italian, Welsh, Ciceronian; also adjectives denoting a sect or religion—Methodist, Puritan, Catholic, Protestant.

IV. Common nouns, when personified in a direct and lively manner; not when sex merely is attributed to an inanimate object.

EXAMPLES.—Then *War* waves his ensanguined sword, and fair *Peace* flees sighing to some happier land.—But, The *sun* pursues his fiery course: the *moon* sheds her silvery beams.

V. All appellations of the Deity, and the personal pronouns *Thou* and *He* standing for His name.

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683. How do most words commence? 684. Recite Rule I. for the use of capitals. In each example, tell which word begins with a capital according to the rule. Recite Rule II. What adjectives must begin with capitals? When must common nouns begin with capitals? Recite Rule V. When must a quoted

EXAMPLES.—The Almighty; the King of kings; the Eternal Essence; Jehovah; the Supreme Being; our Father.

VI. The first word of a complete quoted sentence, not introduced by *that*, *if*, or any other conjunction.

EXAMPLES.—Thomson says, "Success makes villains honest." But, Thomson says that "success makes villains honest."

VII. Every noun, adjective, and verb in the titles of books and headings of chapters.

EXAMPLES.—Butler's "Treatise on the History of Ancient Philosophy"; Cousin's "Lectures on the True, the Beautiful, and the Good".

VIII. Words that denote the leading subjects of chapters, articles, or paragraphs.

A word defined, for instance, may commence with a capital.—Do not introduce capitals too freely under this rule. When in doubt, use a small letter.

IX. The pronoun *I* and the interjection *O*.

X. Words denoting great events, eras of history, noted written instruments, extraordinary physical phenomena, and the like.

EXAMPLES.—The Creation; the Confusion of Languages; the Restoration; the Dark Ages; the Declaration of Independence; the Aurora Borealis.

XI. Letters standing for words are generally written as capitals.

EXAMPLES.—A. D., for *anno Domini*, in the year of our Lord; LL.D., for *legum doctor*, doctor of laws.

EXERCISE.

Correct the small letters and capitals improperly used.

UNDER RULE I.—order is heaven's first Law.—All Truth is

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sentence commence with a capital, and when not? Recite Rule VII., relating to the titles of books. Recite Rule VIII. What may commence with a capital under this rule? What caution is given? Recite Rule IX. Recite Rule X., relating to words denoting great events, &c. Recite Rule XI., relating to letters. What does A. D. stand for? What does LL.D. stand for? How are these abbreviations written?

Precious.—how Fortune plies her Sports!—is not hope a flatterer? —gratitude the heart's Memory.—pay as you go.

be thou the first true merit to befriend;
his praise is Lost who stays till All commend.

UNDER RULE II.—The sarmatians inhabited what is now known as poland.—mayor grey and the Common council received governor hawkins and general smith at the city hall, and escorted them up clinton avenue to The park.—The apennines run through Italy.—cecil, lord burleigh, was queen elizabeth's Premier for forty Years.

UNDER RULE III., IV.—How often we hear of welsh flannel, irish whiskey, scotch Ale, london porter, swedish iron, dutch cheese, russian isinglass, and french Lace!—The spanish minister and the representative of the ottoman porte have just visited the british frigate.—Here are Byron Collars for sale.—May health paint thy cheeks with her brightest colors!

There pleasure decks her guilty Bowers,
And dark oppression builds her Towers.

UNDER RULE V., VI.—Lift up your hearts to the supreme ruler of the Universe.—the jews are still looking for their messiah, their promised saviour.—Truly has the Poet said, "the hand of god has written legibly."—Attila called himself "The Scourge of god".—'Tis said that "conscience is man's most faithful friend." —How much truth there is in this old proverb: "all is not Gold that glitters."

UNDER RULE VII., IX.—for the Student i think there are few Books more valuable than hallam's "introduction to the literature of europe in the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries."—There is much Wit in a Volume that i have lately read, entitled "What i saw in california; or, a three months' tour among the placers." Shall i reason further with you, o ungrateful men?

UNDER RULE X., XI.—A truthful history of the days of chivalry, the crusades, and the feudal system, will find Readers enough.—Put your letter in the p. o. before two o'clock p. m., and you will receive an answer by 8 a. m. to-morrow.—S. Jones, m. d.

MISCELLANEOUS.—the moors, having conquered northern africa, crossed the straits of gades, now gibraltar, into spain, in 710.—

st. paul preached at philippi in Thrace, a. d. 51, the first christian Sermon delivered in europe.

maker, preserver, my redeemer, god!
whom have i in the heavens but thee alone?

death's but a path that must be trod,
if man would ever pass to god.

Next with a Shudder i beheld consumption's sunken Cheek and wasted Form.—o pitiless Destroyer, spare thy Victim!—i have read in spenser that "love is a celestial Harmony of likely hearts." —fervently must we all exclaim: "may the Horrors of the french revolution never be repeated!"

LESSON XCIII.

PUNCTUATION.

685. **Punctuation** is the art of dividing written language by points, in order that the meaning may be readily understood.

686. The Punctuation-points are as follows:—

Period,	.	Semicolon,	;
Interrogation-point,	?	Comma,	,
Exclamation-point,	!	Dash,	—
Colon,	:	Parentheses,	( )
	Brackets,	[ ]	

687. The Period.—A period must be placed after every declarative and imperative sentence, and every abbreviated word; as, "Virtue is the only nobility." "Obey your parents." "We write *Jas.* for *James*, *N. Y.* for *New York*, *no.* for *number*, George *I.* for George *First*."

688. When we have two distinct but kindred propositions, if they are

685. Define Punctuation. 686. Mention the punctuation-points. 687. Give the rule for the use of the period. 688. When we have two distinct but kindred propositions, what two modes of punctuating have we? When must we use the

short, we may either separate them with the colon or semicolon, and thus form one compound sentence; or we may use the period, and thus make two sentences. Always follow the former course, if the propositions are connected by the conjunction *and*, *for*, or *however*; for it is not elegant to commence a sentence with these conjunctions.

"Adversity is the touch-stone of principle. Without it, a man hardly knows whether he is honest or not." Here a semicolon may be substituted for the period after *principle*. If the propositions are connected by the conjunction *for*, a semicolon *must* be used: "Adversity is the touch-stone of principle; for without it," &c.

689. A period after an abbreviation does not take the place of other points. Punctuate just as if the word were not abbreviated. But, at the end of a sentence closing with an abbreviation, only one period must be used. Thus: "Go to the P. O., I tell you, and ask for a letter for H. Rob, jr., M. D."

690. Some common abbreviations, with the meaning of which every one should be familiar, are now presented.

COMMON ABBREVIATIONS.

A. B., Bachelor of Arts.
A. C., *ante Christum*, before Christ.
A. M., Master of Arts.
A. M., *ante meridiem*, morning
B. C., before Christ.
Co., County, Company.
Cor. Sec., Corresponding Secretary.
D. D., Doctor of Divinity.
Do., ditto, the same.
D. V., *deo volente*, God willing.
E. E., errors excepted.
Esq., Esquire,
F. R. S., Fellow of the Royal Society.
Hon., Honorable.
Id., *idem*, the same.
I. e., *id est*, that is.
I. H. S., *Jesus hominum salvator*, Jesus Saviour of men.
Inst., instant, of this month.
LL. D., *Legum Doctor*, Doctor of Laws.
M. C., Member of Congress.
M. D., Doctor of Medicine.
Mem., memorandum.
Messrs., *messieurs*, gentlemen.
M. P., Member of Police.
Mr., Mister.
Mrs., Mistress.
MS., manuscript.
N. B., *nota bene*, mark well.
P. M., Postmaster.

colon or semicolon? Why? Give an example. 689. What directions are given for punctuating, when a period is used after an abbreviation? What is said of a sentence closing with an abbreviation? 690. What point follows each abbreviation presented in the list? Why is there no period between the two *l*s in *LL. D.*?

P. M., *post meridiem*, evening.
P. O., Post Office.
Pro tem., pro tempore, for the time.
Prox., *proximo*, of next month.
P. S., Postscript.
Qy., Query.
Rec. Sec., Recording Secretary.
Rev., Reverend.
R. R., Railroad.
Sec., Secretary.
St., Saint, street.
Ult., *ultimo*, of last month.
U. S. A., United States of America.
U. S. A., United States Army.
U. S. N., United States Navy.
Viz., *videlicet*, namely.

691. The Interrogation-point.—An interrogation-point must be placed after every interrogative sentence, member, and clause; also, after the interjections *eh* and *hey*, implying a question. "Has air weight?" "Air has weight; do you not believe it?" "You thought it would rain, hey?"

692. The Exclamation-point.—An exclamation-point must be placed after every exclamatory sentence, member, clause, and expression; as, "How disgusting is vice!" "Life is short; how careful we should be to use it aright!" "For shame!"

An exclamation-point must also be placed after every interjection except *O*, *eh*, and *hey*, unless very closely connected with other words; as, "Ah! who could have foreseen it?" "Pshaw! you are trifling."

EXERCISE.

Introduce the period, interrogation-point, exclamation-point, and capitals, where they are needed:—The good are better made by ill—We have received good, and shall we not receive evil—His last words (ah how well I remember them) were, "My son, beware of the first advances of sin"—What singular traditions the Laplanders have—They asked Galileo whether he would renounce his doctrines (§ 473)—They asked Galileo, "will you renounce your doctrines"—Aim at perfection affliction is a school

691. Where must an interrogation-point be placed? 692. Where must an exclamation-point be placed? After what part of speech must an exclamation-point also be used?

of virtue how silly are many of the forms of etiquette where was Homer born many a man addresses another as mr or esq, according as he dresses ill or well—Wm A Stevens A M Pres—The wind is N E

LESSON XCIV.

PUNCTUATION (CONTINUED)

693. THE COLON.—The colon indicates the next greatest degree of separation to that denoted by the period.

694. A colon must be placed between the great divisions of sentences, when minor divisions occur that are separated by semicolons; as, "Man has effected wonders; he is every day advancing in knowledge and power: yet, surpassed by nature even in her humblest efforts, he can not so much as make a blade of grass."

A colon must also be placed before a formal enumeration of particulars, or a direct quotation, referred to by the words *thus*, *following*, *as follows*, *this*, *these*, &c. "There is much justice in this warning of Lavater: 'Beware of him who hates the laugh of a child.'"

A *formal* enumeration is one in which the words *first*, *secondly*, &c., or similar terms, are introduced. These words are set off with the comma, the particulars are separated by the semicolon, and before the whole enumeration a colon must be placed. Thus: "There were four great empires in ancient times: first, the Assyrian; second, the Persian; third, the Macedonian; and fourth, the Roman."

695. THE SEMICOLON.—The semicolon indicates the next greatest degree of separation to that denoted by the colon.

693. What degree of separation does the colon indicate? 694. Give the rule relating to the use of the colon between the great divisions of sentences. Give the rule relating to a formal enumeration of particulars. What is meant by a *formal* enumeration? 695. What degree of separation does the semicolon indicate?

696. *Rule I.*—A semicolon must be placed between the members of compound sentences, unless the connection is exceedingly close; as "The wheel of fortune is ever turning; who can say, 'I shall be uppermost to-morrow'?"

If the members are very short, and the connection is close, the comma may be used in stead of the semicolon; as, "Man proposes, but God disposes."

697. *Rule II.*—A semicolon must be placed between the great divisions of sentences, when minor divisions occur that are separated by commas; as, "Plato called beauty a privilege of nature; Theocritus, a delightful prejudice."

698. *Rule III.*—A semicolon must be placed before an enumeration of particulars, when the names of the objects merely are given, without any formal introductory words; as, "There are three cases; the nominative, the possessive, and the objective."

699. *Rule IV.*—A semicolon must be placed before *as*, when it introduces an example; as at the close of the last paragraph.

EXERCISE.

Insert all the points thus far treated, where they are required:
—Five great enemies to our peace are constantly harassing us avarice, ambition, envy, anger, and pride — Books are our best friends they are ever ready with cheerful words yet how many there are that never have recourse to their friendly sympathy— Seneca sums up the matter thus "I would rather never receive a kindness than never bestow one"—Labor not to be rich cease from thine own wisdom —A good book, in the language of the

696. Recite Rule I. for the use of the semicolon, relating to compound sentences. When may the comma be used in stead of the semicolon? 697. Recite Rule II., relating to the great divisions of sentences. 698. Recite Rule III., relating to an enumeration of particulars. 699. Recite Rule IV., relating to examples.

booksellers, is a salable one in that of the curious, a scarce one in that of men of sense, a useful one—There are three safe guides to eternity first a sound head secondly an honest heart thirdly an humble spirit—The spirit of a man will sustain his infirmity but a wounded spirit who can bear

LESSON XCV.

PUNCTUATION (CONTINUED).

700. THE COMMA.—The comma indicates the least degree of separation denoted by any point.

701. *Rule I.*—Adjuncts and clauses, not essential to the meaning of a sentence, or modifying the whole proposition, are set off with a comma on each side, when introduced between a subject and its verb, or other parts that are closely connected.

At the commencement or end of a sentence, such adjuncts and clauses are set off with a comma after or before them, as the case may be.

EXAMPLES.—The bones of birds, in a word, combine strength with lightness, in a remarkable degree.—Blankets, which derived their name from Thomas Blanquet, were introduced into England in 1340.—By the way, gunpowder was first known to the Chinese.—No one can be an atheist, if he will only examine his own structure.

702. Subjects introduced by *as well as*, *and not*, &c., fall under this rule; as, "Toledo, as well as Damascus, was noted for its sword-blades."

703. Single words relating to a whole proposition, and all vocative expressions, are also set off with the comma. "Galileo, accordingly, was imprisoned." "Smile, O Fortune, smile on our attempt."

704. No comma must be placed between restrictive adjuncts or clauses and that which they restrict; as, "All must pay the debt *of nature*." "All *that glitters*, is not gold."

700. What degree of separation does the comma indicate? 701. Recite Rule I. for the use of the comma, relating to adjuncts and clauses. At the commencement or end of a sentence, how are such adjuncts and clauses punctuated? Give examples. 702. What subjects fall under this rule? 703. What single words are also set off with the comma? 704. What is the principle relating to restrictive

705. *Rule II.*—A noun in apposition, modified by an adjunct or adjective, is generally, with its modifiers, set off by the comma; as, "Cleopatra, queen of Egypt, was defeated by Octavius."

706. *Rule III.*—A comma must be placed after the logical subject (§ 108) of a sentence, when it ends with a verb, or consists of several parts which are themselves separated by the comma; as, "All that glitters, is not gold." "Envy, anger, and pride, are our worst enemies."

707. *Rule IV.*—A comma must be placed between short members of compound sentences, connected by *and*, *but*, *or*, *nor*, *for*, *because*, *whereas*, and other conjunctions; as, "Beauty dazzles, but amiability charms."

A comma must also be placed before a conjunction connecting the parts of a compound predicate, unless they are very short and so closely connected that no point is admissible; as, "The sun shines on all, even the wicked and ungrateful."

708. *Rule V.*—A comma must be placed before *or* introducing an equivalent, or a clause defining the writer's meaning; as, "Spelter, or zinc, comes chiefly from Germany."

709. *Rule VI.*—A comma must be placed before *and*, *or*, and *nor*, preceding the last of a series of clauses, or words that are the same part of speech and in the same construction; as, "Sunshine, cloud, and storm, all are sent for some wise purpose."

710. *Rule VII.*—When, to avoid repetition, *and*,

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adjuncts and clauses? 705. Recite Rule II., relating to nouns in apposition. 706. Recite Rule III., relating to the logical subject of a sentence. 707. Recite Rule IV., relating to short members of compound sentences. What is the rule relating to a compound predicate? 708. Recite Rule V., relating to *or*. 709. Recite Rule VI., relating to *and*, *or*, and *nor*. 710. Recite Rule VII., relating to the

or, *nor*, or a verb previously used, is omitted, a comma takes its place.

"Tin is found in England, Bohemia, Saxony, Malacca, and Banca." In stead of saying England *and* Bohemia *and* Saxony *and* Malacca, to avoid repetition we omit *and*, and a comma takes its place. "Methusaleh was the oldest man; Samson, the strongest." *Was* is omitted after *Samson*, and a comma takes its place.

711. *Rule VIII.*—Words used in pairs take a comma after each pair. "Joy and sorrow, cloud and sunshine, are alike sent for our benefit."

712. *Rule IX.*—Words repeated for the sake of emphasis must be set off with their adjuncts, if they have any, by the comma. "Truth, truth, and nothing but truth, will satisfy the candid inquirer."

EXERCISE.

Insert the points thus far treated:—Be temperate temperate I say that you may avoid disease—Fashion for the most part is nothing but the ostentation of riches—Where if I may ask are the modesty and self-restraint the industry and honesty of our ancestors—Born four years after the crucifixion of Christ Josephus lived to witness the destruction of Jerusalem—By the Persian the Turk and the Arab carpets are ranked among the necessaries of life They form with his cushions and divan all his furniture his seat his bed his table He must have his prayer-carpet spread out on which to kneel at the appointed hour he must have his smoking-carpet on which to recline and dream away his time there must be a carpet for tent and harem bazaar and mosque

As darkness begins bats issue from the fissures of walls and other hiding-places where they have sought shelter during the day and by their active flight capture such insects as are then on the wing gnats musquitoes moths beetles &c The service which they thus render is very considerable particularly in tropical regions where they swarm by myriads

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omission of a conjunction or verb. 711. Recite Rule VIII., relating to words used in pairs. 712. Recite Rule IX., relating to words repeated.

LESSON XCVI.

PUNCTUATION (CONTINUED).

713. The Dash.—The dash is used to denote,

I. A break in the construction. "Glory—what is it?"

II. A transition in the sentiment from grave to humorous. "London is noted for its magnificent buildings, its extensive shipping, and—its dexterous pickpockets."

III. A sudden interruption. "You know my feelings; you know—" "Hold!" interrupted my friend.

IV. Hesitation. "Such a man is a—a—I know not what to call him."

V. An abrupt or exclamatory repetition. "Such was the testimony of Solomon—Solomon, who had all the pleasures of the world at his command."

714. A dash is sometimes used to denote the omission of letters, figures, or words; as, "In the year 18—, I stopped over night at the village of G—."

715. A dash after other points makes them indicate a greater degree of separation than they generally denote.

716. Parentheses.—Marks of parenthesis are used to enclose words which explain, modify, or add to the main proposition, when so introduced as to break the connection between dependent parts and interfere with the harmonious flow. "The Saxons (for they descended from the ancient Sacæ) retained for centuries the energy and morality of their ancestors."

717. Brackets.—Brackets are used principally in

713. For what five purposes is the dash used? 714. What else is the dash used to denote? 715. What is the effect of the dash after other points? 716. For what are marks of parenthesis used? 717. Where and for what are brackets principally used?

quoted passages, to enclose words improperly omitted, or added by way of correction, observation, or explanation. "She is weary with [of] life."

EXERCISE.

Punctuate the following sentences:—He who plays the tyran in his own family is a a a what term can I find strong enough to express my contempt—Archimedes the great Sicilian philosopher and what ancient philosopher ranks higher was ignorant of some things that are now known to every intelligent school-boy—Phonography and under this head we include every method of writing by signs that represent the sounds of language is a great improvement on stenography—What are they all worth the triumphs and honors of the world—This was the state of things in Rome Rome the queen-city of the world—"They rise successive should the author not have said *successively* and successive fall"

The Romans were at war with the Persians and their supply of silk from this source being cut off they sought unsuccessfully to obtain it through other channels About this time two monks who had penetrated to China returned to Constantinople bringing with them the news that this wonderful *sericum* for such was the Latin name of silk was the produce of a little worm which changed into a moth they had observed many of the processes by which it was prepared for use The Roman emperor offered them great rewards to return and procure some of the eggs of this wonderful worm which they did at the hazard of their lives 552 A D and the few eggs which they brought concealed in a hollow stick were the stock from which all the silk-worms since reared in Europe have descended

LESSON XCVII.

APOSTROPHE.—HYPHEN.—QUOTATION-POINTS.

718. Besides the punctuation-points, the following marks are used in written and printed matter: the

718. What marks besides the punctuation-points are used in written and

Apostrophe (’), the Hyphen (-), and Quotation-points (“ ”).

719. The Apostrophe.—The apostrophe denotes the omission of a letter or letters, and the possessive case of nouns.

Examples.—*’Tis* for *it is*; *e’en* for *even*; *don’t* for *do not*; *tho’* for *though*; *o’clock* for *on* [the] *clock*. So, in the possessive: *hero’s*, *Charles’s*, *men’s*, *children’s*, *heroes’*. But remember that the personal pronouns never take the apostrophe in the possessive case: *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, *theirs*.

720. The Hyphen.—The hyphen is used to connect the elements of a compound word, when each retains its own accent; as, castle-builder, father-in-law, red-hot, law-abiding, inside-out.

The hyphen is also used after a complete syllable at the end of a line, to connect the parts of a divided word. The hyphen may also be used in stead of the diæresis, to denote that the final vowel of a prefix does not form a diphthong with the first vowel of a primitive; as, pre-engagement, re-establish.

721. Quotation-points.—Quotation-points are used to enclose words quoted from an author or speaker, or represented in narrative as employed in dialogue; as, “Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth.”

722. When the substance merely is given, and not the exact words, quotation-points are unnecessary.

723. Matter within quotation-points is to be punctuated just as if it stood in any other position.

724. When quotation-points are needed at the end of a sentence, they come after whatever other point is required there, if this point applies to

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printed matter? 719. What does the apostrophe denote? Give examples. 720. For what is the hyphen used? For what is it used at the end of a line? For what purpose is it used in stead of the diæresis? 721. What are quotation-points used to enclose? 722. When are quotation-points unnecessary? 723. How is matter within quotation-points to be punctuated? 724. How are quotation-points to stand,

the quotation alone, but before this point, if it applies to the whole sentence and not exclusively to the quotation; as, Pilate asked, "What is truth?" Where now is the "man of destiny"?

725. A quotation within a passage that is itself quoted, is enclosed between Single Quotation-points (‘ ’); as, "I would remind you that Young calls man an ‘insect infinite’."

EXERCISE.

Punctuate, and insert the apostrophe, the hyphen, and quotation-points, where they are required:—The following ever to be remembered couplet is from Popes Moral Essays

Tis education forms the common mind
Just as the twig is bent the trees inclined

Now continued the cavalier lets seek this fair groves friendly shelter and mid its cool retreats enjoy that friendship which according to the poet is a heavn in epitome—Now there ll be no delay een tho they meet a stiff souwester—Temptations says Fenelon are files that rub off much of our self confidence—Very forcibly says the poet

How poor how rich how abject how august
How complicate how wonderful is man

At twenty three he was a hare brained youth who d brook no counsel—I d rather wait than go thro such a rain—The avenging power belongs to one alone

LESSON XCVIII.

FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.—FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

726. Observe the following sentence:—

"'Neath a tyrant's yoke the people languish."

This sentence in plain language and according to the ordinary mode of expression would read thus: "The people languish beneath a tyrant's power." Three things are to be noticed: 1. In the original sentence, the

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relatively to other points at the end of a sentence? 725. When are single quotation-points to be used?

726. Repeat the sentence presented at the commencement of the lesson. What three things are to be noticed in connection with it? What are such changes

word *'neath* is used for the ordinary form *beneath*. 2. The natural order of the words is changed. 3. The word *yoke* is used, not in its ordinary signification, a wooden frame by which two oxen are connected for drawing, but in the sense of power tyrannically exerted. We see then that changes may be made in the form, construction, and application of words. Such changes are called Figures.

727. A **Figure** is a mode of expression in which the ordinary form, construction, or application of words is changed.

728. Figures may be divided into three classes:—

1. Those in which the ordinary form of words is changed, called Figures of Etymology.

2. Those in which the ordinary construction of words is changed, called Figures of Syntax.

3. Those in which the ordinary application of words is changed, called Figures of Rhetoric.

729. Figures of Etymology.—The most important figures of etymology are as follows: A-phær'-e-sis, Pros'-the-sis, Syn'-co-pe, A-poc'-o-pe, Par-a-go'-ge, and Tme'-sis.

Aphæresis is the elision of a letter or letters from the beginning of a word; as, *'twixt* for *betwixt*.

Prosthesis is the prefixing of a letter or letters to a word; as, *bedaub* for *daub*, *ybent* for *bent*.

Syncope is the elision of a letter or letters from the middle of a word; as, *giv'n* for *given*.

Apocope is the elision of a letter or letters at the end of a word; as, *i' th'* midst, for *in the* midst.

Paragoge is the annexing of a letter or letters to a word; as, *steepy* for *steep*.

Tmesis is the separation of the elements of a com

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called? 727. What is a Figure? 728. How may figures be divided? Define and name these three classes. 729. Mention the most important figures of etymology. Define Aphæresis. Define Prosthesis. Define Syncope. Define Apocope. De-

pound by some intervening word or words; as, *whose sins soever* for *whosesoever sins*, *the live day long* for *the livelong day*.

730. FIGURES OF SYNTAX.—The most important figures of syntax are as follows:—El-lip′-sis, Ple′-o nasm, Syl-lep′-sis, and Hy-per′-ba-ton.

Ellipsis is the omission of a word or words, necessary to the complete construction of a sentence, but not essential to its meaning. Numerous examples of this figure were presented in Lesson LXVIII.

Pleonasm is the use of words not necessary to the construction; as, "*He* that cometh, let him come quickly," —for "Let him that cometh, come quickly."—Superfluous words generally weaken the style. Pleonasm should be sparingly used, and only when it is naturally introduced under the influence of strong emotion.

Syllepsis is the construing of words according to the meaning they convey, and not by the strict requirements of grammatical rules.

"Philip went down to the city of Samaria, and preached Christ unto *them*." In this example, *city* is in the third, singular; and, according to § 555, *them* should be *it*. By *the city*, however, is meant *the people in the city*, and the pronoun referring to it may therefore, by syllepsis, be put in the plural.

We have numerous examples of syllepsis in masculine and feminine pronouns used with reference to inanimate objects personified; as, "Night spread *her* mantle o'er the earth."

Hyperbaton is a deviation from the natural arrangement of words; as, *Thee I revisit* for *I revisit thee*.

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fine Paragoge. Define Tmesis. 730. Mention the most important figures of syntax. Define Ellipsis. Define Pleonasm. What is generally the effect of superfluous words? What is said respecting the use of pleonasm? Define Syllepsis. Give an example of this figure. In what have we numerous examples of syllepsis? Define Hyperbaton. Of what is hyperbaton a distinguishing feature? What is its effect, when judiciously used? To what is it liable to lead?

This figure is one of the distinguishing features of poetry. Judiciously used, it imparts variety and strength to composition; but care must be taken that it does not lead to obscurity.

EXERCISE.

Point out the figures of etymology and the figures of syntax that occur in the following sentences:—Israel pitched their tents in the desert.—Redemption! 'twas the favor of the skies.—Each in other's count'nance read his own dismay.—Far adown the vasty gulf plunged the archangel.—Such is their love to us ward.—'Gainst him discharge thy shafts entipped with flame.—Sweet Evening—how she fans our cheek with her cool breath!—Oft with th' enchantress of his soul he talks.

"Fashion, leader of a chatt'ring train,
Whom man for his own hurt permits to reign,
Who shifts and changes all things but his shape,
And would degrade her vot'ry to an ape,
The fruitful parent of abuse and wrong,
Holds a usurp'd dominion o'er his tongue;
There sits and prompts him with his own disgrace,
Prescribes the theme, the tone, and the grimace,
And, when accomplished in her wayward school,
Calls gentleman whom she has made a fool."

LESSON XCIX.

FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

731. The most important figures of rhetoric are as follows:—Sim'-i-le, Met'-a-phor, Al'-le-go-ry, Me-ton'-y-my, Sy-nec'-do-che, Hy-per'-bo-le, Vi'-sion, Per-son-i-fi-ca'-tion, An-tith'-e-sis, Cli'-max, I'-ro-ny, and A-poph'-a-sis.

732. Simile is the direct comparison of one object to another, and is generally denoted by *like*, *as*, or *so*.

731. Mention the most important figures of rhetoric. 732. Define Simile. How is the comparison sometimes made? For what purposes are similes used?

"Laws are like cobwebs, which catch small flies, but let wasps and hornets through."

Sometimes the comparison is made without any formal term to denote it. Thus: "Adversity brings to light the merit in a man; a gem is lustreless till it is rubbed and polished." Here we have a good simile, though neither *like*, *as*, nor *so* appears.—Similes are used either to explain the meaning or embellish the style.

733. Metaphor is the implying of a resemblance between two objects, not by any term denoting similitude, but by assigning to one the name, attribute, or action of the other; as, "Flattery is a sort of bad money, to which our vanity gives currency."

Metaphor is the commonest of all figures. It appears in various forms, sometimes in a single word. We use metaphorical language, when we speak of a *hard* heart, a *cold* reception, *bright* hopes, fancies *gambolling unbridled* through the brain, pleasures *strewed over the highway* of life, &c.

734. Allegory is a combination of kindred metaphors, forming a kind of story, whereby it is sought to teach some important truth.

Most of the parables of Scripture are forms of this figure. Sometimes an allegory is so extended as to fill a volume; as in the case of Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress".

735. Metonymy is calling one object by the name of another that sustains some relation to it. The principal relations on which this figure is founded, are as follows:—

1. Cause and effect; as, "Extravagance is the *ruin* of many,"—that is, the *cause of ruin*.

2. Ancestor and descendants; as, "Then shall *Judah* triumph,"—that is, *the descendants of Judah*.

3. Attribute and that to which it belongs; as, "*Pride* shall be brought low,"—that is, *the proud*.

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733. Define Metaphor. As regards frequency of use, how does metaphor compare with other figures? Give examples of common metaphorical expressions. 734. Define Allegory. What examples of allegory are alluded to? 735. Define

4. Container and thing contained; as, "Jerusalem shall rejoice,"—that is, *the people of Jerusalem.*

5. Emblem and thing represented; as, "This was offensive to the *crown*,"—that is, the *king.*

6. Material and thing made of it; as, "Gold is all-powerful,"—that is, *money.*

736. Synecdoche is using the name of a part for that of the whole, the name of the whole for that of a part, or a definite number for an indefinite; as, "My *roof* is at your service,"—that is, my *house.* "His *head* is grey,"—that is, his *hair.* "A *hundred* swords leaped from their scabbards,"—that is, *a great number.*

737. Hyperbole is the exaggerating of an attribute, or the assigning to a subject of some impossible act; as, "Her brow was *as white as snow.*" "So bright their arms that *the sun himself started* with sudden fright."

738. Vision is the representing of past events as now going on, or what is merely imagined as actually seen; as,

> "Lo! anointed by Heaven with the vials of wrath,
> *Behold where he flies on his desolate path!*
> *Now in darkness and billows he sweeps from my sight;*
> Rise, rise, ye wild tempests, and cover his flight!"

739. Personification is the attributing of sex or life to an inanimate object, or intelligence to an inferior creature; as, "Then *the butterfly spoke,* with a glance of disdain."

740. Antithesis is the contrasting of opposites, to heighten their effect; as, "*Hatred* stirreth up strife; but *love* covereth all sins."

741. Climax is such an arrangement of words,

Metonymy. Mention the principal relations on which metonymy is founded, and give an example of each. 736. Define Synecdoche. 737. Define Hyperbole. 738.

clauses, members, or sentences, that the weakest may stand first, and that each in turn, rising in importance, may make a deeper impression on the mind than the one before it; as, "Then Virtue *became silent, heart-sick, pined away, and died.*"

742. Irony is the asserting of directly the opposite of what we wish to be understood; as when I say, "Go on; *time is worth nothing*,"—meaning that it is very valuable.

743. Apophasis is the pretended suppression of what one is all the time actually mentioning; as, "*I shall say nothing* of the immorality prevalent in Paris—immorality which is all the more dangerous, because arrayed in the most attractive garbs."

EXERCISE.

Point out the figures, whether of etymology, syntax, or rhetoric:

—As cold waters to a thirsting soul, so is good news from a far country.—Is the pen mightier than the sword?—Faithful are the wounds of a friend; but the kisses of an enemy are deceitful.—Where no wood is, there the fire goeth out; so, where there is no tale-bearer, the strife ceaseth.—What shall induce a man to deny his faith? Shall love of pleasure? shall ambition? shall persecution? shall the certainty of death itself?—Her tears might have put out a world on fire.—Reverence the hoary head.—Then groan'd the Earth.—When there's a fire, be sure to throw the looking-glasses out of the window, and carry the feather beds carefully down in your arms.—To waste one's time is foolish, not to mention the sin involved in it.

"But hark! thro' the fast-flashing lightning of war,
What steed to the desert flies frantic and far?"

"Eternal Hope! when yonder spheres sublime
Pealed their first notes to sound the march of Time,

Define Vision. 739. Define Personification. 740. Define Antithesis. 741. Define Climax. 742. Define Irony. 743. Define Apophasis.

Thy joyous youth began—but not to fade.
When all the sister planets have decayed;
When wrapt in fire the realms of ether glow,
And Heaven's last thunder shakes the world below;
Thou, undismayed, shalt o'er the ruins smile,
And light thy torch at Nature's funeral pile!"

LESSON C.

PROSODY.

744. **Prosody** is that part of grammar which treats of the quantity of syllables, of feet, and the modes in which they are combined in verse.

745. **Verse** is language so arranged in lines that syllables of a certain length may occur at certain intervals.

Verse is the form in which poetry generally appears. Poetry is distinguished from prose not only by this form, but by its containing more figures, as well as peculiar words and expressions.

746. There are two kinds of verse, Rhyme and Blank Verse.

747. **Rhyme** is that kind of verse in which there is a correspondence of sound in the last syllables of two or more lines; as,

"True wit is nature to advantage *dress'd*,
What oft was thought, but ne'er so well ex*press'd*."

748. **Blank Verse** is metrical language without rhyme; as,

"Shall we serve Heaven
With less respect than we do minister
To our gross selves?"

744. What is Prosody? 745. What is Verse? How is poetry distinguished from prose? 746. How many kinds of verse are there? Name them and define

749. By the Quantity of a syllable is meant the time required for its utterance. According to this time, syllables are distinguished as Long and Short. One long syllable is equivalent to two short ones.

750. A long syllable may be denoted by a short horizontal line placed over its vowel, a short syllable by a curve; as, pāssĭng.

751. Remember that vowel sounds have nothing to do with the quantity of syllables in verse. *Met*, in which *e* has its short sound, is more likely to be long in verse than *me*, in which *e* has what is known as its long sound.

752. In words of more than one syllable, accent constitutes length; unaccented syllables are short. In the case of monosyllables, nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, and interjections, are for the most part long; articles are always short; prepositions and conjunctions are generally short; pronouns are long when emphasized,—when not, short. Observe the quantity as marked in the following lines:—

"Ŏf āll thĕ cāusĕs whĭch cŏnspīre tŏ blĭnd
Mān's ĕrrĭng jūdgmĕnt, ănd mĭsguīde thĕ mĭnd,
Whāt thĕ wēak hēad with strōngĕst bīās rūles,
Ĭs prīde; thĕ nĕvĕr-fāilĭng vīce ŏf fŏŏls."

753. A Foot is two or more syllables, constituting a portion of a line.

754. The most important feet in English verse are as follows:—

The Iambus, a short syllable and a long,	⏑ – sĕvēre.
The Tro'chee, a long syllable and a short,	– ⏑ trĕmblĭng.
The Spondee, two long syllables,	– – cōld winds.
The Pyrrhic, two short syllables,	⏑ ⏑ wil- | dĕrnĕss.
The An'apest, two short and a long,	⏑ ⏑ – bărrĭcāde.
The Dactyl, a long and two short,	– ⏑ ⏑ tĕndĕrlў.
The Am'phibrach, a short, a long, and a short,	⏑ – ⏑ trĕmēndoŭs.
The Amphim'acer, a long, a short, and a long,	– ⏑ – sāddlĕ-bāgs.

each. 749. What is meant by the Quantity of a syllable? As regards quantity, how are syllables distinguished? To what is one long syllable equivalent? 750. How may a long syllable be denoted? A short one? 751. What caution is given with respect to the quantity of syllables? 752. In words of more than one syllable, what constitutes length? State the principles that apply to the quantity of monosyllables. 753. What is a Foot? 754. Mention the most important feet that

755. Of these, the Iambus, the Trochee, the Anapest, and the Dactyl, are the principal. A line may be wholly composed of any of these four feet, and it is then called Pure.

The four remaining feet never form whole lines by themselves, but are sometimes interspersed with other feet. A line into which different feet enter is called Mixed. Observe the following examples:—

1. *Pure Iambic.*—'Tĭs ēd- | ŭcā- | tiŏn fōrms | thĕ cōm- | mŏn mīnd.
2. *Pure Trochaic.*—Ōh! thĕ | pāin, thĕ | bliss ŏf | dўĭng!
3. *Pure Anapestic.*—Shĕ wĭll sāy | 'twăs ă bār- | băroŭs deēd.
4. *Pure Dactylic.*—Hāndlē hĕr | tēndĕrly.

1. *Mixed Iambic.*—*Nō rēf-* | ŭge sāve | thĕ wīl- | *dĕrnĕss* | rĕmāins.
2. *Mixed Trochaic.*—Sōftlў | sweēt ĭn | *Lўdĭăn* | mēasŭres.
3. *Mixed Anapestic.*—*Sōft scēnes* | ŏf cŏntēnt- | mĕnt ănd ēase.
4. *Mixed Dactylic.*—*Ēvĕr mōve* | cheērilў.

EXERCISE.

Give the quantity of each syllable in the following lines; in such lines as are divided, name each foot:—

"Sweet is the breath of morn, her rising sweet,
With charm of earliest birds; pleasant the sun,
When first on this delightful land he spreads
His orient beams, on herb, tree, fruit, and flower,
Glistering with dew; fragrant the fertile earth
After soft showers; and sweet the coming on
Of grateful evening mild."

"I have passed | o'er the hills | of the storm- | y North,
And the larch | has hung | all his tas- | sels forth;
The fish- | er is out | on the sun- | ny sea,
And the rein- | deer bounds | through the past- | ure free,
And the pine | has a fringe | of soft- | er green,
And the moss | looks bright | where my step | has been."

---

occur in English verse, and the syllables of which each consists. 755. Of which of these feet may lines be wholly composed? What are such lines called? What use is made of the other feet? What is meant by a Mixed Line? Give examples of pure and mixed lines.

LESSON CI.

PROSODY (CONTINUED).

756. By Metres are meant the different systems according to which verses, or lines, are formed. They are named from the feet employed, and their number.

757. Metres in which the iambus prevails, are called Iambic; those in which the trochee prevails, Trochaic; the anapest, Anapestic; the dactyl, Dactylic.

758. Distinguished by the number of feet in a line, the varieties of metre are as follows: Monom'eter, which consists of one foot; Dim'eter, of two feet; Trim'eter, of three; Tetram'eter, of four; Pentam'eter, of five; Hexam'eter, of six; Heptam'eter, of seven; Octom'eter, of eight.

759. Some metres, besides a certain number of complete feet, contain a syllable over at the end of the line. Such metres are called Hy-per-cat-a-lec'-tic.

760. Scanning is the process of dividing a line into the feet of which it is composed.

761. Examples of the different metres follow. Some of the lines are pure, and some are mixed. The figures 1, 2, 3, &c., respectively denote monometer, dimeter, trimeter, &c. Vertical lines mark divisions into feet.

To scan, pronounce the syllables that constitute the successive feet, after each foot mentioning its name. The fifth iambic line in the Exercise below would be scanned thus: *What's fame*, spondee; *a fan-*, iambus; *cied life*, iambus; *in oth-*, iambus; *er's breath*, iambus. The metre is *mixed iambic pentameter*. The third of the hypercatalectic lines would be scanned thus: *Athens*, trochee; *holds my*, trochee; *heart and*, trochee; *soul*, syllable over. The metre is *pure trochaic trimeter hypercatalectic*.

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756. What are meant by Metres? 757. What are Iambic Metres? Trochaic? Anapestic? Dactylic? 758. Name the different metres as distinguished by their number of feet, and tell of what each consists. 759. What is meant by Hypercatalectic Metres? 760. What is Scanning?

EXERCISE.

Scan the following lines, and name the metre of each:—

IAMBIC METRES.

1. Dĕspāir!
2. Thĕ wāve | rĕsoūnds.
3. Thĕ pānt- | ĭng hērds | rĕpōse.
4. The proud | are taught | to taste | of pain.
5. What's fame? | A fan- | cied life | in oth- | er's breath.
6. With still unwearied wing, and eye that never sleeps.
7. Thy bounteous hand with worldly bliss has made my cup run o'er.
8. Wisdom, in sable garb arrayed, immersed in rapturous thought profound.

TROCHAIC METRES.

1. Pīllŏw.
2. Chārms tråns- | pōrting.
3. Ōthĕr | ārms māy | prēss thee.
4. War, he | sung, is | toil and | trouble.
5. Oh! the | strife of | this di- | vided | being.
6. Only thou art holy; there is none beside thee.
7. Read you not the wrong you're doing, in my cheek's pale color?
8. If the world be worth thy winning, think, oh! think it worth enjoying.

ANAPESTIC METRES.

1. Ĭt ĭs gōne!
2. Let the loud | trumpet sound.
3. My grottoes are shaded with trees.
4. Have ye e'er heard of gallant like young Lochinvar?

DACTYLIC METRES.

1. Slēndĕrlў.
2. Fashioned so | slenderly.
3. Fierce as the breath of the hurricane.
4. Happy the home of the thrifty and temperate!
5. Far o'er the burning sands, far over desert lands, wearily.
6. Far o'er the burning sands, far over desert lands, plodding on wearily.

EXAMPLES OF HYPERCATALECTIC METRES.

1. *Dac. Mon. Hyp.*—Evĕr bĕ | fīrm.
2. *Ana. Dim. Hyp.*—Fŏr thĕ tēm- | pĕst ĭs rāg- | ĭng.
3. *Tro. Trim. Hyp.*—Āthĕns | hōlds mў | hēart ănd | sōul.
4. *Iam. Tetr. Hyp.*—Ĭ knōw | thĕ thĭng | thāt's mōst | ŭncōm- | mŏn.
5. *Iam. Pent. Hyp.*—Whēre reĕk- | ĭng Lōn- | dŏn's smŏk- | ў cāl- | drŏn sm- | mĕrs.

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